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ABSTRACT

Developed as orientation materials for foreign students coming to the United States to study English, this manual contains six units to acquaint students with U.S. history, government, and culture. The first unit introduces students to the daily routines and interpersonal relationships of U.S. people. Unit 2 examines the origins and significance of baseball and provides instructions for playing the game. Unit 3 discusses U.S. government, emphasizing local and state governments, and discusses the concept of federalism. Unit 4 examines five important periods in U.S. history: the founding of the nation, the Civil War era, the Progressive era, the Great Depression, and the upheavals of the 1960's. Also discussed are the personalities and major political actions of the five presidents most closely associated with these times--George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin Roosevelt, and Lyndon Johnson. In unit 5 students learn about American values by studying proverbs and expressions. Family and kinship are the foci of the concluding unit. Provided for each unit are a leader's guide, including some preparatory readings, and student materials. (RM)

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HOMESTAY PROGRAM ORIENTATION MANUAL

including leader's guides and preparatory readings, plus materials for student use.

Prepared by the
RESEARCH DEPARTMENT
of
AFS International/Intercultural Programs

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SP 015 677

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Introductory note to users who find this material in the ERIC system

The *Homestay Program Orientation Manual* was developed in 1982 by the Research Department of AFS International for the training and orientation of foreign students who were coming to the U.S.A. for eight weeks in order to improve their English language skills. In AFS's "Homestay Program," the students -- who ranged in age from 16 to over 30 -- spend roughly half their stay in a university setting where they receive formal instruction in English, and the remaining time living with a family somewhere in the U.S. While at the university, the students also receive cultural training; the manual was developed to be the guidebook for that training.

The manual, as originally designed, included eight units or modules. Six of these appear herein. Missing are the first and the last, which are highly AFS-specific. Therefore, the units herein are designated using Roman numerals as II through VII. Their titles are:

II. Daily Routines and Interpersonal Relationships of U.S. People

III. How to Play Baseball, the All-American Game

IV. Government of the U.S.A.: Local, State, and Federal

V. History of the U.S.A.: Focus on Key Presidents*

VI. Values of U.S. People: Focus on Proverbs and Expressions

VII. Family and Kinship in the U.S.A.

The materials that have been prepared for the facilitators of orientation groups include both a step-by-step leader's guide and one or more preparatory readings for each unit; these are designated by pagination including a Roman numeral and an Arabic numeral (IV-1, IV-2, IV-3, etc.). The materials for the students -- which originally appeared in a separate handbook -- are placed herein immediately after the related facilitator's materials and are designated by pagination including the letter "S" between the two numerals (IV-S-1, IV-S-2, IV-S-3, etc.). The number of pages of materials for students ranges from one to nine.

Following are some of the instructions to group facilitators that appeared in the original version of the manual.

Look at the leader's guide for the session entitled "How to Play Baseball, the All-American Game."** This begins on page III-1. First, you will find five pages devoted to a formal outline of this session. Note that this and the other point-by-point outlines cover the *basic content* that

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* Before using Unit V, read the information on page V-25.

** Unit II was not chosen for illustrative purposes because it is unusual in not including preparatory readings for the group facilitator.

you should attempt to get across to the students. We expect that, to the extent that the English competence of the members of your group allows, you will go beyond this basic content. Sources or which you may draw for additional related content include (1) your own knowledge and opinions, (2) the preparatory readings for each session, and (3) other sources and materials that you may possess or be able to find. Note also that within each point in the outline, a title or phrase has been typed in *italics*. This is the main idea within the larger point, that is, the idea on which you should focus if the members of your group have especially limited English skills. In other words, the italicized portions represent the minimum content of the orientation sessions.

After the formal outline for each session you will find the preparatory readings. In the case of Unit III, these begin on page III-6. These are for you to study *before* you begin the orientation session. The preparatory articles have *not* been written for you to read to the students during the orientation session, but rather for your private perusal before the session begins.

Now look at the materials prepared for the students, which in the case of Unit III begin on page III-S-1. Please note that these students' materials are *not* intended as a collection of homework assignments, and are *not* intended as a workbook to be completed during the orientation session. *The students' materials are a resource for you to use during each actual orientation session.* They are a resource that should be put into the hands of the individual students at the beginning of the session.

It is important for you to know that we have developed these notes in the firm belief that you, the group leader, have as much to contribute to the excellence and success of each orientation session as we have. You are a person who knows a great deal about the ways of U.S. people; you have your insights (and your anecdotes) about the U.S. lifestyle, and these are just as valuable as ours. Even more important, you know the members of your group; you understand their interests, their idiosyncracies, their abilities to use the English language. Finally, you have your own personal style of teaching and leading groups. We want you to give free rein to your style, and to make these orientation sessions as much an expression of *you* as they are of the content outlined herein. We have prepared these notes on the assumption that the format of each orientation session will tend more toward being a formal presentation (or lecture) than toward being an experiential exercise. But we urge you to feel free to introduce a variety of learning methods into your orientation sessions.

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Homestay Program Orientation

DAILY ROUTINES AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS OF U.S. PEOPLE

Leader's Guide

Objectives:

1. To familiarize the students with some of the cultural patterns of behavior found in the U.S.
2. To provide an understanding of interpersonal relationships in the U.S.

Students' Materials: *Homestay Program Orientation Manual* (one per student)

Leader's Materials: None required for this session. However, the leader may wish to bring a place setting (plate and silverware) to this session in order to demonstrate the U.S. style of table manners.

Time Required: Approximately two hours, structured as follows:

20 minutes:	Part I - Social Life
25 minutes:	Part II - Non-Verbal Behavior
10 minutes:	Part III - Conception of Friendship in the U.S.
10 minutes:	Part IV - Use of Time in the U.S.
5 minutes:	Part V - Riding in the Car
5 minutes:	Part VI - Special Rules for Smokers
15 minutes:	Part VII - Meals
30 minutes:	Part VIII - Around the House

Discussion: It is assumed that the leader knows the patterns of behavior and relationships in the U.S. Therefore, only an outline is provided here to suggest those topics which might be touched on during the session. The time guidelines presented above need not be followed strictly and discussion or questions pertaining to any particular topic should be encouraged. The leader should make certain that at least the first five topics are covered. If there are no smokers in the group, Part VI should be eliminated.

PART I--SOCIAL LIFE

Point 1: *People in the U.S. display certain patterns of behavior when going out with friends.*

1. When friends go out together, each person usually pays his or her own way unless one person specifically offers to treat the other.

2. Friends may frequently consult each other if they are unsure how to dress for a particular occasion.

Point 2: *In the U.S., a teenaged boy and girl frequently go out together on a date.*

1. Traditionally, the boy invites the girl on a date and pays for her ticket or meal. He also picks the girl up at her house and brings her home. Today this pattern is not always followed, however, and a boy and girl may go out as friends, each paying his or her own way, or the girl may offer to pay for both. Increasingly, girls are feeling free to invite boys out for dates.

2. Many teenagers in the U.S. are sexually active. This is by no means universal, however, and no person should feel pressured into sexual activity because "this is what Americans do."

3. Displays of affection, such as kissing and hand holding, are quite common between boys and girls who are dating, even in some public places. Often, such kissing and hand holding does not indicate a serious, romantic relationship, but only that the couple like each other, or find each other attractive. Sometimes a teenaged couple will park the car on a "Lover's Lane" on the way home from a date in order to have some time along together to show their affection. Again, no one should feel pressured into kissing a date.

Point 3: *Parties in the U.S. are different from parties in other countries.*

1. At parties in the U.S., it is common for people to stand in small groups for conversation and to move from group to group. The conversations at a party tend to be brief; when there is a lull in the conversation, the people in the group will excuse themselves by saying something appropriate such as, "Well, it was nice to meet you," or "Excuse me, but I want to say hello to a friend of mine who has just arrived." It is also acceptable for a person to leave the group in order to get a drink or some food. These people then move toward other groups to join in new conversations.

2. Although the first guests to arrive at a party may be introduced to each other, as more guests arrive, the guests are expected to introduce themselves to each other.

3. If an American comes to a party with a friend or a date, it is not expected that they remain together throughout the party, even if only one of them knows the host or

hostess. They will probably seek each other out from time to time, however, and will leave the party together.

PART II--NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Point 1: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations about when they may touch each other.*

1. In general, Americans do not touch each other frequently.

2. Touching someone too long or too often may be taken as a sign of sexual attraction. Lengthy touching or hand holding between people of the same sex is viewed more often than not as a sign of homosexuality, and is therefore avoided. However, a sexual attraction for members of the opposite sex is viewed as normal, and public hand holding between men and women is generally accepted. Similarly, Americans of the same sex do not kiss each other in greeting, although women (and *only* women) may do so on occasion. On the other hand, men and women may kiss in greeting, and this is common in some, but not all, social circles.

3. It is common to hold hands with young children, or to hug them, or pat them on the head. However, this type of touching is acceptable only for friends or relatives of the family. It is not acceptable to touch a stranger's child.

4. Touching strangers, except in extremely crowded conditions, is not acceptable, and an American will usually apologize for accidentally touching a stranger.

5. Tapping someone on the shoulder to attract his attention is acceptable, but an American will often apologize for disturbing the person he or she has tapped.

Point 2: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations about personal space.*

1. When conversing, Americans generally stand about one-half meter apart.

2. In a public place, such as a doctor's office, a train station, or a beach, Americans will sit or stand as far away from strangers as the space and the crowd will allow (up to a maximum of about five or six meters). Researchers have conducted experiments in the U.S. showing that, in crowded places, people will generally move away if a stranger sits in the chair right next to them and there are other chairs available that are not next to someone else.

Point 3: *People in the U.S. display certain eye behavior when conversing with each other.*

1. In conversation, people in the U.S. look each other in the face frequently, but not constantly.

2. Americans may feel embarassed if a person tries to look constantly into their eyes, and will probably look away. Children sometimes play a game to see who can stare into the other person's eyes the longest before looking away.

3. On the other hand, if eye contact is totally avoided, the American may feel that the other person isn't listening.

4. A frequent eye behavior pattern in a conversation is that the listener looks into the speaker's face while the speaker's eyes wander and occasionally look at the listener for acknowledgement.

Point 4: *People in the U.S. use certain gestures in communication.* (these should be demonstrated by the leader.)

1. O.K. (Circle made with thumb and index finger)

2. Yes (Nodding the head); No (Shaking the head)

3. I don't know (Shrugging the shoulders)

4. I forgot. (Snapping the fingers, or hitting the forehead with the palm of the hand)

5. Good luck. (Crossing the fingers)

6. Good (Thumbs Up); Bad (Thumbs down)

7. Hello. (Waving)

8. Come here. (Beckoning with the palm up)

9. I can't hear. (Hand cupped around the ear)

10. We've got a secret, or I like you (Wink)

11. Oh no! Here we go again. (Rolling the eyes)

12. So-so, mediocre (Rocking the head, plus facial expression)

13. Get out of here; I don't believe you. (Pushing away with hand)

14. Out; stop; I've had enough (Using hand to slice across neck)

(The leader should feel free to demonstrate any other gestures which are common in the U.S. It would be also useful to call the students' attention to the facial expressions that may accompany the gestures made.)

PART III--CONCEPTION OF FRIENDSHIP IN THE U.S.

Point 1: *People in the U.S. tend to be very friendly* with almost everyone they meet; however, most of these relationships remain superficial and do not lead to increasing intimacy.

Point 2: *Americans may develop a few intimate friendships, but these may fade away easily if the circumstances change*--for example, if one friend moves to another part of the country, changes jobs, or marries. Usually, neither friend is hurt by this fading, and both are pleased, if they meet again in the future, to pick up the friendship where it left off.

Point 3: *Because Americans are highly mobile, they tend to develop skills that enable them to make friends in a new setting.* This is still difficult, however, and people who are new to a community will frequently seek out sports clubs, churches, or community groups as a way of meeting people and making friends.

PART IV--USE OF TIME IN THE U.S.

Point 1: *Americans are very time-conscious.* Many events in the daily life, such as waking, eating, and sleeping, are governed by the clock.

Point 2: *It is generally important to be punctual in the U.S.,* especially for appointments, meals, or dates.

Point 3: *For the theater, weddings, funerals, public lectures, or sports events, people in the U.S. need to arrive about 10 minutes before the time specified.* In some cases--symphonies or ballets, for example -- anyone who arrives after the production has begun will be made to wait in the lobby until the end of the first number or act, so that others in the audience will not be disturbed by the late-comers.

Point 4: Americans do not arrive before the appointed time to a party, but *will arrive within five to ten minutes after the appointed time for a dinner or luncheon party, and will arrive anywhere from one-half to one hour after the appointed time for parties that do not include a meal.* Some parties are considered "Open House" parties or receptions.

In these cases, the guests may arrive at any time during the two or three hours that are indicated on the invitation.

PART V--RIDING IN THE CAR

Point 1: *It is generally assumed that married couples or couples on a date will sit next to each other in the car.* In most cases, there is no segregation of the sexes in the car.

Point 2: *The driver should not be left alone in the front seat if anyone else is riding in the car.* Riding in a taxi is the only exception to this rule, and in some cases a passenger may ride up front with the taxi driver.

Point 3: *If three people will be traveling by car, all three may sit in the front seat* if the car is large enough. This is so no one will be left isolated in the back seat.

PART VI--SPECIAL RULES FOR SMOKERS

Point 1: *A smoker should ask permission to smoke in the car or in a private home.* Some people are bothered by the smoke, and a request not to smoke should be respected.

Point 2: *Make sure that there are not any "No Smoking" signs* before smoking in a public place. Generally, it is not permitted to smoke in stores or theaters, although some movie houses have smoking sections. It is generally permissible to smoke in restaurants, though some have "No Smoking" sections.

Point 3: *It is not necessary to offer cigarettes to everyone in the room when you are smoking at a party.* Americans tend to assume that smoking is a personal habit rather than a social one. However, it is customary to offer a cigarette to another smoker, and it is generally acceptable to ask for a cigarette--but not too frequently--if you have run out.

Point 4: *At a restaurant, it is better not to smoke until all of those at your table have finished eating.* It is acceptable to smoke before the meal arrives, however. Some restaurants now have "No Smoking" sections, and patrons are generally informed of this fact when they enter the restaurant.

PART VII--MEALS

Point 1: *Americans generally eat three meals a day.* Breakfast can be a big meal, a light meal, or skipped entirely. Lunch is eaten around noon, and frequently consists of a sandwich or burger. Dinner or supper is the main meal of the day in most U.S. households; it usually begins between 6:00 and 8:00 PM.

Point 2: *Table manners in the U.S. are somewhat different from those in other countries.* Some general rules are presented below:

1. There are different rules for eating and using the silverware (these should be demonstrated).
   - Keep the left hand in the lap while eating.
   - Keep the napkin on the lap except when in use.
   - Use both hands to cut meat with the knife and fork. However, after *each* piece is cut, the knife is laid across the plate, the fork is moved to the right hand, and the left hand is returned to the lap.
   - The side of the fork may also be used for cutting.
   - When butter is served, use the knife on the butter plate to cut a piece of butter. Transfer this piece of butter from the knife to the dinner plate, then use your own knife to spread the butter.
   - While eating the meal, any piece of silverware that is temporarily not being used should be laid across the top edge of the plate (demonstrate which is the top edge). When the meal is finished, all used pieces of silverware should be placed across the center of the plate as a sign that you have finished.
2. People in the U.S. expect that everyone will turn up at the table with their hands relatively clean. People usually eat in their ordinary street clothing, although some families eat breakfast in their pajamas and bathrobes. People in the U.S. now very rarely "dress" for dinner in formal or semi-formal clothing.
3. Conversation is expected during the meal, as are appreciative comments about the food.
4. In many families, anyone wishing to leave the dinner table for any reason must first ask to be excused from the table. Permission to leave the table is given by the parents.
5. After a meal, some or all family members clear the dishes from the table. Guests should offer to help as well.
6. For meals outdoors such as picnics or Bar-B-Ques, people in the U.S. dress quite informally, even, in some cases, in bathing suits. On these occasions people are more likely to eat with their fingers rather than be bothered with silverware.

Point 3: *Snacks may be eaten between meals,* especially in the afternoon or late in the evening.

PART VIII--AROUND THE HOUSE

Point 1: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations about use of and behavior in the bedroom.*

1. Bedrooms are considered private spaces in the home. Members of a family will usually knock on the door before entering someone else's bedroom, even if the door is open.

2. Each person in the home is expected to make his or her own bed every morning, unless told otherwise.

Point 2: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations about the use of the bathroom and proper personal hygiene.*

1. Many U.S. families insist on privacy in the bathroom. In these cases, family members will close (and perhaps lock) the door when they are in the bathroom and others wishing to use the bathroom must wait to go in until the person in the bathroom leaves. For this reason, many families in the U.S. have several bathrooms. In other families, privacy in the bathroom is not so important, but a closed bathroom door is respected.

2. A full bathroom in the U.S. encloses a bathtub or shower, a sink, and a toilet. A half bathroom has only the toilet and sink.

3. Although families usually have to pay for the hot water they use, most people in the U.S. will shower or take a bath daily. Showers are kept brief, for the most part, to save on hot water.

4. People in the U.S. generally dislike body odor, and most of them use an underarm deodorant daily, especially in warm weather.

5. Americans also wash their hair frequently; some wash it daily.

6. Most people in the U.S. brush their teeth twice or three times a day, and mouthwashes are popular to prevent bad breath.

7. In the U.S., soap in the bathroom is shared by all; people do not have individual bars of soap. Towels are more likely to be for individual use, but this rule is violated in many families.

Point 3: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations concerning laundry.*

1. Most middle-class families in the U.S. have washing machines and dryers in the home, and all but the most delicate clothes are washed in the machine.

2. People in the U.S. wear clean underwear and socks daily, and change their outer clothing frequently as well.

Point 4: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations about how work is done in the kitchen.*

1. In American families, children who are old enough are usually expected to prepare their own snacks. Certain foods or drinks may be reserved for meals or special occasions, however, and should not be used without asking permission.

2. Children in American families frequently wash and/or dry the dishes for the family as part of their regular chores. Boys may be asked to do this as well as girls.

3. In some households, the mother may be possessive of "her" kitchen, and expects other members of the family to treat her as the boss in the kitchen. In these cases the father and children may also work in the kitchen, but follow the directions set down by the mother.

Point 5: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations about personal property within the family.*

1. Children and parents often individually own certain items in the house which are not shared freely with other members of the family. This is most likely to be true of items that are located in the bedrooms.

2. Brothers and sisters ask each other to borrow individually owned items such as stereos, typewriters, clothes, etc.

3. All combs, cosmetics, clothes, coats, and even umbrellas in some cases are individually owned and are not borrowed, usually, without the permission of the owner.

4. Bicycles and sports equipment are also frequently individually owned, but may be borrowed upon request.

5. Television sets and stereos that are located in the living room or family room are likely to be shared

by all members of the family. However, these may also be considered the individual property of one or both of the parents, or of the older children.

6. Games, records, and books -- no matter where they are kept-- may also be individually owned.

7. Americans will generally lend almost any individually owned item to another member of the family or to a guest, but want the borrowers to ask permission first.

Point 6: *People in the U.S. have certain expectations concerning noise and silence.*

1. Americans are easily disturbed by the noises that others make. Many city governments have a department to deal with noise complaints, and there are laws which prohibit loud noise at certain times.

2. When anyone in the house is asleep, other people in the household will try to keep the noise level down.

3. On the other hand, Americans are also bothered by silence, and may keep a radio or television turned on in the background while they work.

4. A long period of silence in a conversation is embarassing to most Americans, and they may attempt to fill the silence by saying whatever they can think of to say. Americans will frequently try to draw out a person who is seen as too quiet.

WHAT TO EXPECT WHEN INTERACTING WITH PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES

- Expect informality -- we treat everyone more or less alike regardless of differences in social status.
- Expect personal questions -- they are our way of finding common ground on which to build a relationship.
- Expect directness and candidness -- we value objectivity and accuracy in many social situations, and may seem overly blunt or unfeeling when responding to questions or giving advice.
- Expect concern for personal property -- we tend to value material things, and we like to be asked before sharing our things with others.
- Expect relatively little touching -- touching and hand holding are often seen as signs of sexual attraction.
- Expect punctuality -- we are conscious of the passage of time and like people to be "on time."
- Expect to help out around the house -- we do not have servants, and we like everyone to assist with chores around the house so they can be done quickly in order to leave free time for activities.
- Expect male-female equality -- we are trying to build a society in which distinctions between the sexes are minimized.
- Expect to introduce yourself to others -- we admire people who are assertive and forward, and we don't expect strangers to wait to be introduced.
- Expect little or no knowledge of your culture -- although our government is deeply involved in world affairs, we as a people have taken little interest in other nations and cultures.

Homestay Program Orientation

HOW TO PLAY BASEBALL, THE ALL-AMERICAN GAME

Leader's Guide

Objectives:

1. To provide a brief introduction to the origins of baseball and its significance to the people of the United States.
2. To give basic instruction regarding the playing of baseball.
3. To play baseball.

Students' Materials: *Homestay Program Orientation Manual* (one per student)

Leader's Materials:

1. For preparatory reading, see (included herein):
   a. *A Brief History of Baseball*
   b. *An Inning in a Hypothetical Game*
2. Blackboard or flipchart, on which the Leader will have drawn a plan of a baseball diamond, similar to the drawing found in the student manual; this will be used in giving basic instruction regarding the playing of baseball. It is assumed that the Leader will be familiar with the basic procedures involved in playing baseball.
3. Basic equipment for playing baseball, including:
   a. bat (at least one)
   b. softball
   c. fielders' gloves (as many as possible)
   d. other paraphernalia (e.g., catcher's mask) as available

Time Required: Minimum of three hours, structured as follows:
30 minutes: Part I - History of Baseball in the U.S.
60 minutes: Part II - How to Play Baseball
90 minutes: Part III - Play Ball!

Follow-up Activity: Field trip to a professional baseball game; this will be organized by the Homestay Program staff.

PART I -- HISTORY OF BASEBALL IN THE U.S.

Point 1: Legend holds that baseball was invented by *Abner Doubleday in Cooperstown, New York, in 1839.* However, historical research shows that baseball was played in the U.S. as early as the 1820s.

Point 2: A set of rules for baseball was drawn up in 1845 by *Alexander J. Cartwright*; intended for the New York Knickerbocker Baseball Club, they were quickly adopted by other clubs. These rules specified that the game was over when one team scored 21 runs.

Point 3: A different set of rules was drawn up for baseball clubs in Massachusetts. In 1857, a convention was held in New York City *to arrive at a common set of rules*. At about this time, the National Association of Baseball Players (NABP) was formed.

Point 4: From 1820 until 1870, *all baseball players were amateurs*, that is, they were not (openly) paid money to play ball. The Cincinnati Red Stockings was the first team to pay salaries to all its players. Today, in spite of professional baseball, many people in the U.S. play baseball as an amateur sport.

Point 5: After the U.S. Civil War (1860-1865), there was a sizeable increase in the number of people migrating from the countryside to the cities in the U.S. As these cities became more crowded, the rural way of life became increasingly idealized. *Baseball became associated with the good, clean, healthy rural life*, and more and more became the national pastime.

Point 6: At first, baseball was a pastime primarily for "white-collar" workers. However, employers of "blue-collar" workers increasingly promoted the playing of the sport by their men (against teams formed by other companies); *employers wanted their workers to engage in this wholesome sport instead of going to pool halls or gambling houses.*

Point 7: The National Association of Professional Baseball Players was formed in 1871, but became discredited due to gambling and the selling of liquor at games. In 1876, the *National League of Professional Ball Clubs* was formed; it prohibited selling liquor at games and disallowed baseball playing on Sunday.

Point 8: A final reorganization of professional baseball came in 1903; a National Commission was formed, under which there were *two leagues: the American League and the National League*. At this time most teams were in cities in the Northeast and Midwestern regions of the U.S.

Point 9: Since 1950, the creation of new teams and the relocation of old ones has resulted in a *major league team being located in most major U.S. cities*. (Map in student manual.)

Point 10: At the end of the playing season (April - October), the winning team in the American League plays the winning team in the National League in the *World Series*. People throughout the U.S. take enormous interest in the Series.

PART II -- HOW TO PLAY BASEBALL

Point 1: The essential *physical requirements* for a baseball game to be played are the following:

a. A large field, on a corner of which are arranged *four "bases" in the shape of a square or "diamond."* The bases may be sandbags, pieces of wood, even rocks. (Field diagram and glossary of terms in student manual.)

b. *Two teams of nine players each.* Informal games may be played with six to ten players, so long as each team has an equal number of players.

c. *A wooden bat and a small ball.* In professional games, a smaller "hardball" is used. In amateur games, a larger "softball " is used. (Pass around examples of bats and balls.)

d. Not absolutely essential, but highly recommended, are *baseball gloves* for each player. These aid in catching the ball and prevent injury to the hand. The glove is worn on the hand that the player does not throw with. (Pass around examples of gloves.)

Point 2: A basic feature of any baseball game is that *the two teams take turns "batting" and "fielding."* In a standard game, each team gets nine turns at both batting and fielding. Shorter games may be played by common agreement.

a. *"Batting" means that individual members of the team, one after another, take turns standing at home plate and using the bat to try to hit the pitched ball.* The ball is pitched by the "pitcher" of the opposite team. If a batter hits the ball, he runs around the bases and tries not to be "put out" by the players on the opposing team.

b. *"Fielding" means that the entire team is positioned in the field, trying to catch hit balls, and trying to put out runners after they have hit the ball.* The players have assigned positions in the field. (Use the field diagram in student manual to show the positions of the defensive players.)

Point 3: Another basic feature of any game is that *the teams swap positions (between batting and fielding) whenever the batting team makes three outs.* There are four basic ways in which members of the fielding team can put out members of the batting team. They are:

a. *The pitcher can "strike out" the batter.* This occurs if the pitcher throws three pitches that the batter either swings at without hitting, or that are judged (by the umpire) to be good enough so that the batter *should* have tried to hit them. If a batter hits one of the pitches, three more ways of getting him out remain.

b. *Any fielder can put out a batter if he catches a hit ball before the ball touches the ground.* If the ball touches the ground before being caught, the batter runs toward first base, and two more ways of getting him out remain.

c. *Any fielder can put out a batter (runner) if the fielder, while in contact with the ball, gets to a base and touches it before the runner does.* Or, the fielder may stand in contact with the base and catch the ball; if the ball gets to the fielder before the runner gets to the base, the runner is out.

d. *Any fielder can put out a batter (runner) if the fielder, while in contact with the ball, touches the runner except when the runner is already on one of the bases.* A runner on base cannot be tagged out.

Point 4: The principal objective of a baseball game is to make points. *A point is made only when a member of the batting team has gone around all four bases; specifically, a point is made when a batter (runner) crosses home plate.* The point is awarded to the batter's team, and the team with the most points after nine turns batting is the winner of the game. Some rules that apply to running around the bases are these:

a. A batter who has hit the ball does not have to run all around the four bases. If the ball is not caught before it touches the ground, *the batter may run to first base and stop, or on to second base and stop, or on to third base and stop, or are the way around to home plate.* In the last case, the batter has hit a "home run."

b. Batters (that is, runners) who are stopped on any of the three bases may remain there safely as long as part of their body is in contact with the base. *Runners advance to the next base when another member of their team hits the ball; if possible, the runners may advance more than one base.* Runners may advance at other times, too, if they are fast enough (to avoid being tagged or having the ball reach the next base before they do); this is called "stealing" a base.

c. *At no time may two runners be together on one base.* If they are, the one who arrived last is out.

d. *A batter may get to first base by "walking."* The batter "walks" when the pitcher throws him four bad pitches (in the judgement of the umpire). A batter who gets to first base by "walking" may make a point for his team if he crosses home plate, just like runners who get on base by successfully hitting the ball.

e. *Runners on any base when their team makes its third out lose their chance to try to get to home plate.* Base runners do not return to their base the next time their team has a turn at batting.

Point 5: Let's see what happens during a single inning in a game between the "Greens" and the "Blues." This will help you get a better feel for the nature of the game. (Use the preparatory reading entitled *An Inning in a Hypothetical Game*, plus your drawing of a baseball diamond on the flipchart or blackboard, to walk your group through an inning of a baseball game. Or, if you wish, create your own story to achieve the same purpose.)

PART III -- PLAY BALL!

Directions: Take your group members to a suitable place on campus and *play ball*. You may wish to combine with one or more other groups in order to have enough students for two complete teams. Make your arrangements beforehand with the other Group Leaders.

You are encouraged to play baseball on other occasions with those Homestay Program Students who wish to do so.

A Brief History of Baseball

It is a popular legend in the U.S. that baseball was invented by Abner Doubleday in Cooperstown, New York in the year 1839. The Baseball Museum and Hall of Fame is located in Cooperstown, and Cooperstown is considered the official birthplace of the game. However, sports historians generally do not accept this legend. Earlier references in children's games books and writings show that a game called baseball existed in the 1820s, and was played in very much the same way as Doubleday's game. Most researchers believe that baseball is a modification of the British game of rounders, which is a modification of cricket.

In 1845, Alexander J. Cartwright drew up a set of rules for the newly founded Knickerbocker Club of New York, an amateur baseball association. These rules were quickly adopted by other baseball clubs. Although today's baseball game generally ends after nine innings, the Cartwright rules ended the game when one of the teams scored 21 runs, or "aces" as they were called at the time.

In 1857, the first baseball convention was held in New York City. This convention served to standardize the game, ending the differences between the New York and the Massachusetts games. The National Association of Baseball Players (NABP) was formed in 1858.

In the period following the U.S. Civil War, there was a sizeable increase in rural-to-urban migration in the U.S. as well as the beginning of the large migrations from Europe to American cities. It was during this time of increasingly crowded cities that the rural way of life was idealized, and that baseball became known as the national pasttime. The spaciousness of the baseball field may have suggested a bygone, rural life style in contrast to the densely populated city. In any event, baseball provided the open air and exercise that was associated with the better life of the farm. Baseball was considered wholesome, good for body and soul. Soon baseball clubs were found in many white collar neighborhoods in the Northeastern and Midwestern cities. By 1866, there were 32 baseball clubs in Chicago alone.

Although the working class men were not able at first to enjoy the luxury of taking off work in the afternoon to play baseball, they were eventually able to join clubs formed by their companies. Company officials backed baseball clubs in the apparent hopes that their employees would engage in this wholesome sport rather than going to pool halls or gambling houses.

During this early period, all the baseball clubs were amateur--that is, the players were not openly paid salaries to play ball. However, there were payments made "under the table" to attract good players to certain clubs. But the idea of an all-professional baseball team was not realized until 1869 when the Cincinnati Red Stockings became the first team to pay salaries to all its players. The Red Stockings team traveled the country from New York to California that year, winning games and introducing baseball to communities in virtually every part of the United States.

In 1871 there were enough professional baseball teams to create the National Association of *Profesional* Baseball Players, replacing the old NABP. This Association only lasted four seasons--with the club from Boston winning all four championships. But the NAPBP quickly obtained a bad reputation. Gambling on games was common, and liquor was sold at the games. In 1876 the National League of Professional Ball Clubs was formed, reorganizing and cleaning up the old Association. Sunday baseball was made illegal for a time, and no alcoholic beverages could be sold at games.

After much shuffling of teams and leagues, in 1903 there was a final reorganization. Baseball now had a National Commission plus two leagues, the American league and the National League. But baseball was still very much confined to the Northeast and Midwestern regions in the U.S., and there were no teams in the Southeast or West. There were two clubs in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, and St. Louis. The National league had single teams in Brooklyn, Pittsburgh, and Cincinnati, and the American league had single teams in Cleveland, Detroit, and Washington.

Finally in the 1950s professional baseball expanded to reach the rest of the United States. The Boston Braves moved to Milwaukee (and later to Atlanta), the Philadelphia Athletics moved to Kansas City (and then moved to Oakland in the 1960s). The Brooklyn Dodgers left for Los Angeles and the New York Giants went to San Francisco. The Washington Senators team moved to Minneapolis and became the Minnesota Twins. Bucking the traffic going west, the St. Louis Browns went East to Baltimore to become the Orioles. New teams were also created and shifted around so that today, most major cities have a professional baseball team. There are even two major league teams in Canada.

During the regular season, the two leagues do not play against each other. It is only at the end of the baseball season that the champions of each league play each other in the World Series. In the World Series, up to seven games are played, and the first team to win four of these games is declared the World Champions of baseball. Even Americans who are not normally very interested in baseball may become interested in the World Series, especially those who live in the city represented by one of the contenders for the Series. Before the Series was moved to the evening or prime time television hours, school child- and office workers would frequently be given permission to bring their T.V. into the classroom or office in order to be able to watch the home team play in the Series. A festival atmosphere prevails in the city of the winning team as fans rush out into the streets or out to the airport to greet the returning champions. Neither the mayor nor the President can expect such a large welcoming crowd or generate such excitement.

An Inning in a Hypothetical Game

The two teams playing this hypothetical game will be the Greens and the Blues. The Greens are at bat first, and the Blues are in the outfield.

For a few minutes the pitcher and the catcher on the Blues team "warm up" by throwing the baseball back and forth. Soon the first Greens player steps up to home plate and prepares to bat. The umpire stands behind the catcher making sure that he can get a good view of the pitch.

(If the batter does not swing at the ball, it is the job of the umpire to decide if the pitch was in the strike zone, and therefore a "strike," or outside the strike zone, and therefore a "ball.")

The Blues pitcher serves the first ball to the Greens batter. The ball travels directly over home plate, at the level of the batter's waist. The batter swings and misses. "Strike one!" calls the umpire. The second pitch is a little low, but the batter swings anyway and hits the ball. The batter starts to run, but the ball lands outside the foul line between home plate and first base. "Foul ball. Strike two!" calls the umpire.

(A foul ball is considered a strike for the first strike or the second strike, but not for the third. Should the batter hit another foul ball, he would not be put out, nor would it be counted as a ball. However, if a foul ball is also a fly ball and the catcher or a fielder is able to catch it before it touches the ground, the batter is automatically out even on the first foul.)

The pitcher serves the third pitch to the batter. This one is also a little low, reaching the batter at a height just below his knees. This time the batter does not swing. "Ball one," calls the umpire.

(If a pitcher should throw four pitches that the umpire declares are balls, the batter will walk to first base and the next batter will have a turn at bat.)

The next pitch served to the batter is within the strike zone, but the batter does not swing at it, thinking it is too low. The umpire, however, calls "Strike three--you're out!" The first Greens batter has missed his chance to get on base, and the Greens team has one out.

The second Greens batter now steps up to the plate. After two balls and one strike, he hits a ground ball that rolls between second and third bases in the infield. The batter drops the bat and runs as fast as he can to first base. Meanwhile, the shortstop has picked up the ball and throws it quickly to the first baseman on the Blues team. The Greens batter reaches the base just before the ball does, and the umpire near first base declares him "safe." The second Greens batter has made a base hit. He will stay on first base until the next batter makes a hit.

The third Greens batter steps up to the plate. He gets two strikes, but four balls, and walks to first base. The runner on first base also walks to second base, since two runners cannot share the same base.

The next Greens batter gets a strike and a ball, and then hits a low, ground ball just inside the baseline between home plate and third base. As soon as the ball is hit, the batter starts running to first base, the runner on first starts running to second, and the runner on second starts running to third. If all three gained their bases, the bases would be loaded. However, this does not happen.

While the three Greens players are running their bases, the Blues third baseman quickly picks up the baseball and takes it to third base before the runner can get there. This forces the runner out. As soon as the third baseman touches third base he throws the ball to the second baseman, who catches it while standing on the base. The umpire determines that the baseball reached second base before the runner, and that runner is also declared out. The Blues team has just made a double play, and the Greens team now has three outs. The Greens team must give up their turn at bat without scoring a run and let the Blues have their turn at bat.

After the Greens pitcher and catcher warm up, the first Blues player steps up to the plate. He makes a base hit by hitting a long grounder out into center field. The outfielder picks up the ball and throws it to the first base just as the batter is arriving at base. The first base player, however, does not catch the ball, because it is too high. The Blues player sees his chance and runs on to second base while the first baseman chases the missed ball and throws it to second. Seconds after the runner arrives on second base, the second baseman catches the ball, but the runner is safe. The Greens player has gained an extra base on an error.

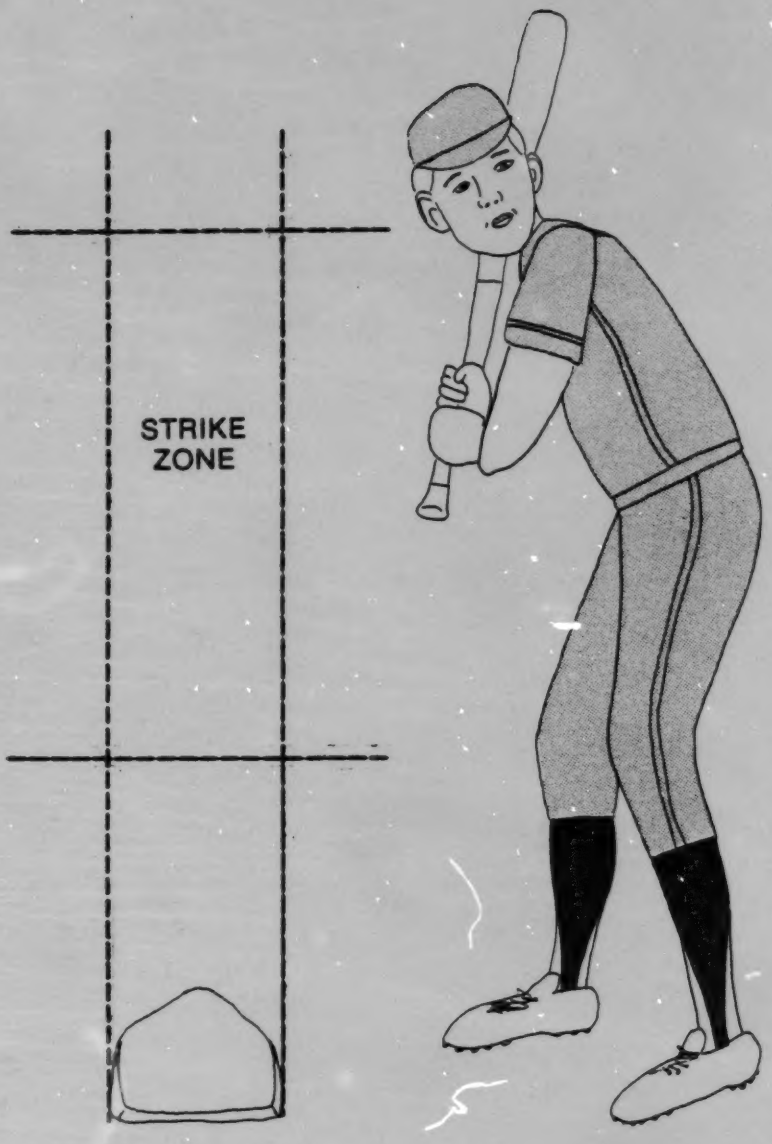
The second Greens batter is not a very strong hitter. The coach advises him to bunt--that is, to strike the ball very gently so that it does not travel very far. After two balls, the batter is able to do this. The first baseman picks up the ball and quickly puts the batter out. However the runner who was on second base has already made it to third base before he could be put out. This puts him in good scoring position, which is what the coach had hoped for when he advised the batter to bunt. The Blues have sacrificed one out, but it will be worth it to them if they can score a run on the next hit.

After two strikes, the next Blues batter swings the bat hard, and sends the ball up in the air way out into left field. Since it is a fly ball the runner on third base, who had taken a long lead off the base, goes back to third to tag up. The outfielder catches the ball, putting the batter out. As soon as the ball is caught, the third base runner is free to run home, and the coach advises him to go for it. At the same time, the outfielder is throwing the ball to the catcher at home plate, and in order to score, the runner must make it home before the baseball. The runner is fast and approaches home at top speed, sliding into the base just as the ball thrown by the outfielder reaches the

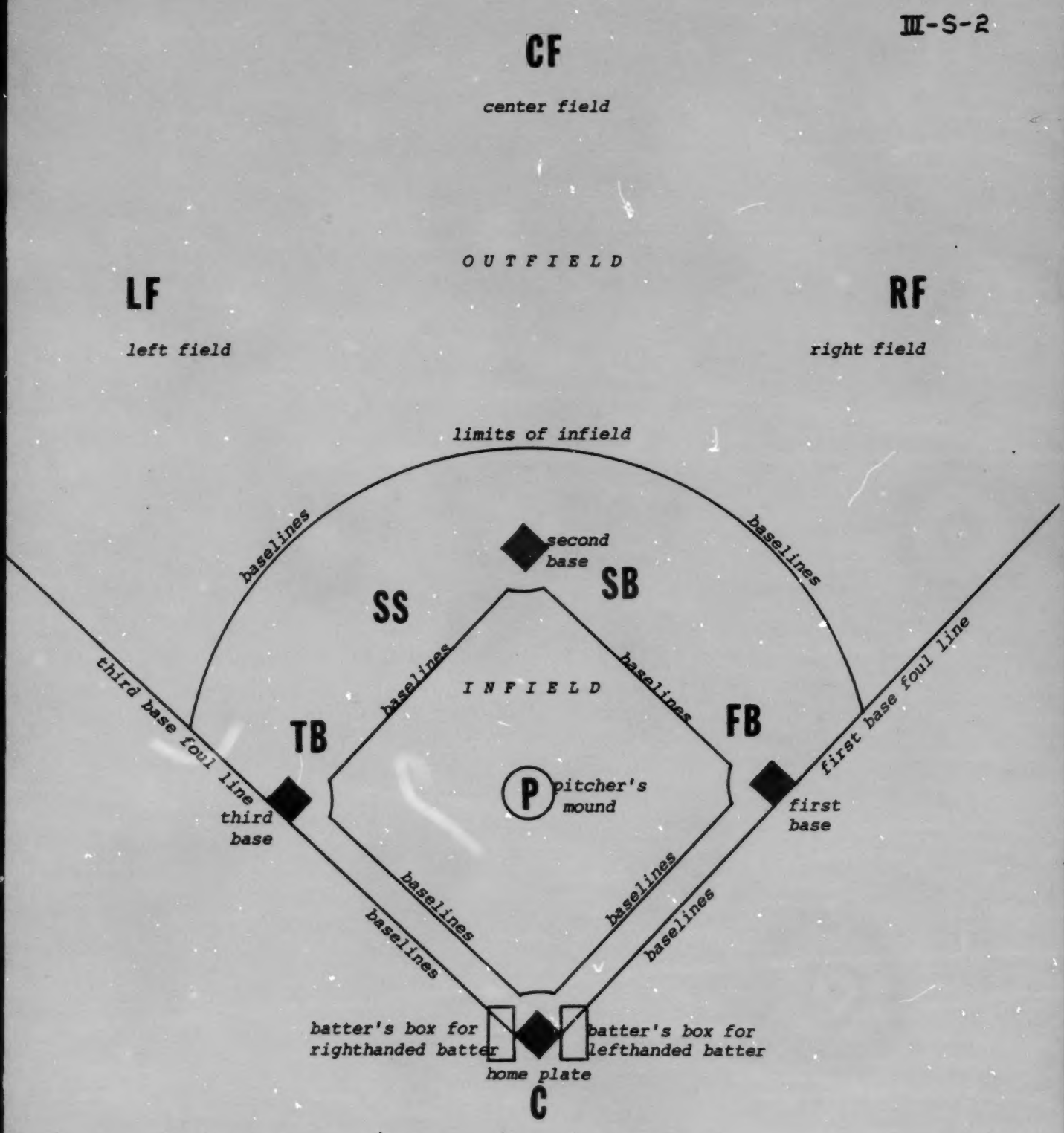
catcher. The umpire rules that the runner is safe, using the principle that a tie goes to the runner. The Blues team has scored a run and still has only two outs.

(A base runner will usually take a lead off the base in order to reach the next base more quickly. In the case of a fly ball, however, the runner cannot leave the base until the ball is caught and so must "tag up" before running on. If it looks too risky to take the next base, the runner may stay on the base until the next hit.)

The next Blues batter strikes out, and the first inning is over. The score is Blues 1, Greens 0. The Greens and Blues will continue to play for nine innings. If the score is tied at the end of the nine innings, the two teams will play extra innings until one team is ahead at the end of an inning.

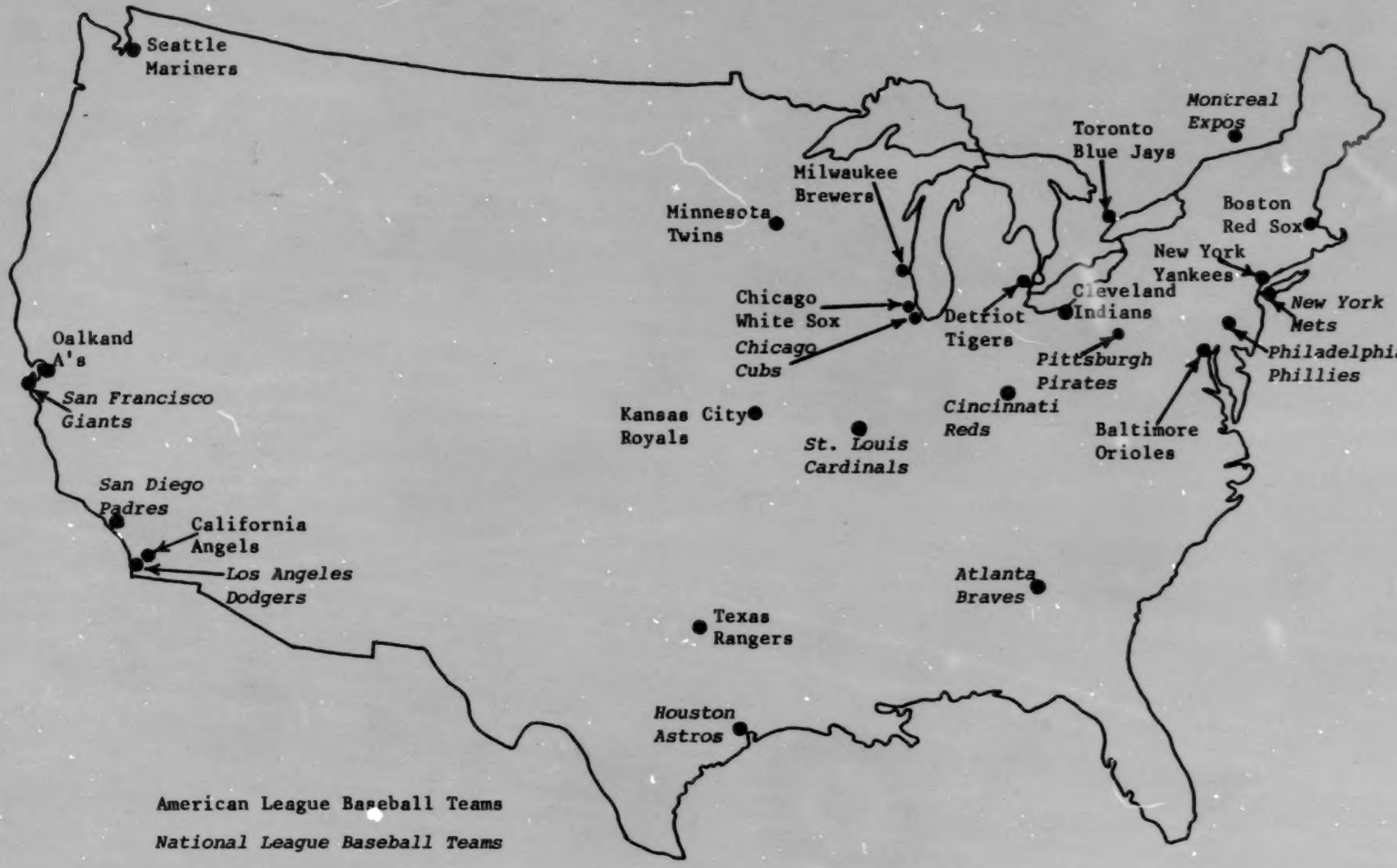


When batting, stand approximately half a meter from the edge of home plate, turn the *side* of your body and the *front* of your face toward the pitcher, and hold the bat lightly against your shoulder, ready to swing at the ball when it comes by. The strike zone is the area through which the ball must pass if the umpire is to charge you with a "called strike" instead of a "ball." The strike zone is also the best location for the ball to be if you really want to *whack* it!



DEFENSIVE TEAM LEGEND

LF - Left Fielder	FB - First Baseman	SS - Short Stop
CF - Center Fielder	SB - Second Baseman	P - Pitcher
RF - Right Fielder	TB - Third Baseman	C - Catcher


Seattle Mariners
Montreal Expos
Toronto Blue Jays
Milwaukee Brewers
Minnesota Twins
Boston Red Sox
New York Yankees
Chicago White Sox
Cleveland Indians
New York Mets
Detriot Tigers
Chicago Cubs
Oalkand A's
Pittsburgh Pirates
Philadelphia Phillies
San Francisco Giants
Cincinnati Reds
Kansas City Royals
Baltimore Orioles
St. Louis Cardinals
San Diego Padres
California Angels
Los Angeles Dodgers
Atlanta Braves
Texas Rangers
Houston Astros
American League Baseball Teams
National League Baseball Teams

29

30

III-S-3

Casey at the Bat

by: Ernest L. Thayer

The outlook wasn't brilliant for the Mudville nine that day;
The score stood four to two with but one inning more to play.
And then, when Cooney died at first, and Barrows did the same,
A sickly silence fell upon the patrons of the game.

A straggling few got up to go in deep despair. The rest
Clung to that home which springs eternal in the human breast;
They thought, If only Casey could but get a whack at that
We'd put up even money now, with Casey at the bat.

But Flynn preceded Casey, as did also Jimmy Blake,
And the former was a lulu and the latter was a cake;
So upon that stricken multitude grim melancholy sat,
For there seemed but little chance of Casey's getting to the bat.

But Flynn let drive a single, to the wonderment of all,
And Blake, the much despised, tore the cover off the ball;
And when the dust had lifted, and men saw what had occurred,
There was Jimmy safe at second, and Flynn a-hugging third.

Then from five thousand throats and more there rose a lusty yell;
It rumbled through the valley, it rattled in the dell;
It knocked upon the mountain and recoiled upon the flat,
For Casey, mighty Casey, was advancing to the bat.

There was ease in Casey's manner as he stepped into his place;
There was pride in Casey's bearing and a smile on Casey's face.
And when, responding to the cheers, he lightly doffed his hat,
No stranger in the crowd could doubt 'twas Casey at the bat.

Ten thousand eyes were on him as he rubbed his hands with dirt,
Five thousand tongues applauded when we wiped them on his shirt;
Then while the writhing pitcher ground the ball into his hip,
Defiance gleamed from Casey's eye, a sneer curled Casey's lip.

And now the leather-covered sphere came hurtling through the air,
And Casey stood a-watching it in haughty grandeur there.
Close by the sturdy batsman the ball unheeded sped;
"That ain't my style," said Casey. "Strike one," the umpire said.

From the benches, black with people, there went up a muffled roar,
Like the beating of the storm waves on a stern and distant shore.
"Kill him! Kill the umpire!" shouted someone on the stand;
And it's likely they'd have killed him had not Casey raised
his hand.

With a smile of Christian charity great Casey's visage shone;
He stilled the rising tumult, he bade the game go on;
He signaled to the pitcher, and once more the spheroid flew;
But Casey still ignored it, and the umpire said, "Strike two."

"Fraud!" cried the maddened thousands, and echo answered "Fraud!"
But one scornful look from Casey and the audience was awed;
They saw his face grow stern and cold, they saw his muscles strain,
And they knew that Casey wouldn't let that ball go by again.

The sneer is gone from Casey's lip, his teeth are clenched in hate.
He pounds with cruel violence his bat upon the plate;
And now the pitcher holds the ball, and now he lets it go,
And now the air is shattered by the force of Casey's blow.

Oh, somewhere in this favored land the sun is shining bright,
The band is playing somewhere, and somewhere hearts are light;
And somewhere men are laughing, and somewhere children shout,
But there is no joy in Mudville -- mighty Casey has struck out.

Take Me Out to the Ballgame

by: Jack Norworth and Albert von Tilzer

Take me out to the ball game,
Take me out to the park.
Buy me some peanuts and cracker jacks.
I don't care if I never come back.
Let me root, root, root for the home team;
If they don't win it's a shame.
For it's one, two, three strikes, "You're out!"
At the old ball game.

Glossary of Baseball Terms

ball: 1. the baseball itself. 2. a pitched ball not swung at by the batter, and not passing through the accepted zone for a called strike. If the pitcher throws four balls, the batter may walk to first base.

base: any of the four corners of the baseball diamond, especially first, second, and third bases. These bases are objects lying on the ground, and a base runner who has any part of his body in contact with a base cannot be put out.

base hit: a fair ball hit by the batter, enabling him to run at least to first base safely; in addition, in order for a hit to be officially scored as a "base hit," no error may be committed by a fielder, and no base runner may be forced out.

base line: the boundary of the area between the bases within which a player must stay while running from one base to another.

base on balls: the advancing to first base of a batter to whom four balls have been pitched. Also known as a walk.

bases loaded: the situation in a game when there is a runner on first, second, and third bases.

bat: 1. the wooden or metal club used to strike the ball. 2. to use this club to hit (or attempt to hit) the ball.

batter: the player who is currently holding the bat and attempting to hit the ball thrown by the pitcher across home plate.

batter up: the cry made to summon the next batter to his place at home plate to attempt to hit the ball.

batting average: a statistic showing the number of base hits a player has made divided by the number of times he has been at bat. Batting averages of .300 or higher are quite good.

bunt: to tap the pitched ball lightly by blocking it with the bat held horizontally, so that the ball rolls away slowly.

called strike: a pitched ball that is not swung at by the batter, but which is judged by the umpire to have passed through the accepted strike zone, so that a strike is charged to the batter.

diamond: the space enclosed by the three bases and home plate.

double: a base hit that enables the batter to advance immediately to second base.

doubleheader: two games played on the same day, at the same site, between the same two teams.

double play: a play by the fielders in which two base runners are put out in rapid succession. The most common double play is to put out the base runner going from first to second base, then immediately to put out the batter going from home plate to first base.

error: a mistake in fielding made by one of the nine players in the field.

fair ball: a hit by the batter in which the baseball lands within the area defined by the foul lines.

fan: a spectator or other person who takes great interest in baseball and in the success of a particular team. Short form of the word *fanatic*.

field: 1. the area or ground on which the game is played. 2. to catch or pick up a batted ball during play.

fielder: a defensive player who is in the field ready to catch or pick up batted balls and attempt to put out the base runner. The pitcher and catcher are fielders, as are the players who cover both the infield and the outfield.

fly or *fly ball:* a ball that is batted up into the air.

force out: a play in which the fielders get a ball to a base before a base runner who must go to that base arrives there. A force out is possible because two base runners may not be on the same base at the same time.

foul ball: a batted ball that rolls or passes over the foul lines.

foul lines: either of two lines connecting home plate with first base and with third base, and extended straight out beyond these two bases to the far edges of the playing field.

grand slam: a home run hit when the bases are loaded, causing four runs to be scored for the offensive (batting) team.

grounder or *ground ball:* a batted ball that rolls or bounces along the ground.

ground rule double: a rule that requires a batter to go to second base if he hits a ball that strikes the ground within the playing field but then bounces out of the playing field (that is, into the stands) before it can be fielded.

home plate: the base at which the batter stands, and which a base runner much reach safely in order to score a run.

homer or *home run:* a hit that enables the batter to score a run by running non-stop around the baseball diamond without being put out. Home runs are usually balls hit out of the stadium.

infield: 1. the baseball diamond. 2. collectively, the defensive players (fielders) who play on the diamond, as opposed to those who play in the outfield.

inning: a division of the game during which each team has a turn at bat. Each inning has a *top* (first) half and a *bottom* (second) half.

lead: a few steps toward the next base taken by a base runner before the ball is hit, and intended to shorten the time required to reach that next base.

line drive: a batted ball that travels low, fast, and straight.

out: the retirement from play of a player who has not succeeded in getting to first base, or who has not succeeded in running between any of the bases without being tagged by the ball or without having the ball precede him to a base to which he must advance.

outfield: 1. the part of the baseball field beyond the diamond. 2. the defensive players stationed there.

pitch: to throw the ball over home plate in order to give the batter an opportunity to hit it.

pitcher: the defensive player who pitches the ball.

run: a point scored by the offensive (batting) team. A run is scored only by a base runner who successfully runs to first, second, and third bases, and then to home plate without being put out, and all within half of an inning.

safe: the condition of having reached a base or home plate without having been put out.

single: a base hit that enables the batter to advance to first base.

steal: the gaining of the next base by a base runner without the ball's having been hit by the batter, and without an error's having been committed by a fielder.

strike: 1. a pitch that is swung at and missed by the batter. 2. a called strike.

strikeout: an out made by a batter to whom three strikes have been charged.

strike zone: the area directly above home plate, bounded on the top at the level of the batter's shoulders, and bounded on the bottom at the level of the batter's knees.

switch hitter: a player who is able to bat both right-handed and left-handed.

tag up: to return to the base previously gained before running to the next base. This procedure is necessary when the batter has hit a fly ball that is caught by a fielder; all base runners at this time must tag up before attempting to advance to the next base.

triple: a base hit that enables the batter to advance immediately to third base.

umpire: a person who officially rules on plays during a game, such as whether a base runner is out or safe, and whether a ball is fair or foul, or whether a pitch is a strike or a ball, and so forth.

walk: 1. to go to first base after having been pitched four balls, that is, four pitches that were not strikes. 2. to pitch four balls to a batter, as in *He walked the batter.*

Homestay Program Orientation

GOVERNMENT OF THE U.S.: LOCAL, STATE, AND FEDERAL

Leader's Guide

Objectives:
1. To provide an overview of the *functions* of the various levels of government in the United States, especially of local and state governments.
2. To discuss the concept of "federalism" in the context of intergovernmental relations in the United States.

Students' Materials: *Homestay Program Orientation Manual* (one per student)

Leader's Materials: For preparatory reading, see *An Overview of Governmental Functions in the U.S.*, included herein. It is assumed that the Leader is knowledgeable about the basic features of government in the United States.

Time Required: Minimum of two hours, structured as follows:
- 10 minutes: Part I - Governments in the United States
- 40 minutes: Part II - The Functions of Local Governments
- 40 minutes: Part III - The Functions of State Governments
- (Optional): Part IV - The Functions of the Federal Government
- 30 minutes: Part V - "Federalism" in the United States

PART I -- GOVERNMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES

Point 1: Within the United States, there are approximately *80,000 separate and autonomous governments*. All but 51 of these are local governments. (State the numbers of the different kinds and levels of government.)

Point 2: People in the United States consistently *have feared governments that are excessively large and powerful*. They have wanted to insure that government remains responsive to the needs and opinions of the people it serves. This helps to explain why there are so many local governments, each with a limited number of functions.

Point 3: Approximately 41,000 of the local governments in the U.S. are *"special districts" in which officials have responsibility for a single function*. The most well known type of single-function government in the U.S. is the independent school district, but there are other types of functions that are handled by special districts.

PART II -- THE FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Point 1: More visible and significant than single-function districts are the *general-purpose units of local government* such as municipal (city and town) and county governments. General-purpose local governments perform a wide variety of functions and services for the people who live within its boundaries.

Point 2: *The safety, health, and welfare of the public* is a major concern of local government. These objectives are achieved through functions such as:

- fire protection
- police protection
- public health
- welfare
- zoning or planning
- coroner

Point 3: Local governments are responsible for the *supply of essential services* to the people of the locality:

- water supply
- gas and electricity
- waste disposal

Point 4: *Transportation and communication*, both within the local boundaries and with the outside world, is a concern of local officials:

- streets
- public transportation
- airports and harbors

Point 5: Almost all local governments take some measures to promote *culture and recreation:*

- parks and recreation
- libraries, museums, zoos

Point 6: *Punishment of law-breakers* and the handling of other types of judicial matters is a responsibility of all but the smallest general-purpose local governments:

- prosecution of law-breakers
- courts
- corrections

Point 7: *Other functions of local governments* include the following. Note that education very often is the responsibility of a special district, not of the general-purpose government:

- voter registration and elections
- record keeping
- taxation
- public education

Point 8: General-purpose local governments usually are structured according to one of *three basic models*. (See the three diagrams in the students' manual.)

PART III -- THE FUNCTIONS OF STATE GOVERNMENTS

Point 1: State governments are general-purpose units of government that function in places where no local government exists. State-level functions therefore are *similar to local functions in some respects; however, states perform different kinds of functions as well.* There are 50 state governments.

Point 2: *The safety, health, and welfare* of the public is a major concern of government at the state level:
- police protection
- National Guard
- public health
- welfare
- care of the mentally ill

Point 3: *Conservation of nature*, including steps to insure the productivity of agriculture, is a function of state government:
- parks and forests
- fish and game
- water supply
- agriculture

Point 4: *Regulation of economic activities* within the boundaries of the state, and the promotion of the economy of the state, is a concern of state-level officials:
- regulation of business and industry
- regulation of professions and trades
- regulation of labor
- promotion of the state for business and tourism

Point 5: *Punishment of law-breakers* and the handling of other types of judicial matters is an important responsibility of the 50 states; most civil and criminal cases in the United States are tried in state-level courts:
- state courts
- corrections

Point 6: *Highways and vehicles* are a major responsibility of the state governments in the U.S. Neither the local nor the federal level of government has any substantial control over the regulation of vehicles and drivers. This key responsibility therefore has a category of its own.

Point 7: *Other functions of state governments* include the following. Note that state-level departments of education exist largely to channel funds to local school districts and to operate public colleges and universities:
- taxation
- education

Point 8: All 50 state governments in the U.S. are structured according to one basic model. *The structural model for the state governments and the federal government is the same.* (See the simplified diagram in the students' manual.)

PART IV -- THE FUNCTIONS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT (OPTIONAL)

Directions: If you believe that the members of your group are interested, and if you are willing to take the extra time required, discuss the functions of the federal government along lines similar to those suggested above for local and state governments.

PART V -- "FEDERALISM" IN THE UNITED STATES

Point 1: *"Federalism" is a concept used to describe the relations among the three levels of government: local, state, and federal (national).* The use of the term "federalism" to describe the nature of these relations is somewhat confusing because the term "federal" is commonly used to refer only to the national (central) government.

Point 2: Some governmental functions must be carried out by a centralized authority: direction of the military forces, regulation of air traffic, operation of the postal service, and minting of the currency are examples. Nevertheless, insofar as possible, *governmental functions are administered locally by locally elected officials who are not accountable to other officials at some "higher" level.*

Point 3: The national government clearly is more powerful than any state or local government, but it is extremely rare for national officials to coerce state or local officials by the use of force. *If the national government is paramount, it is because national officials have been able to influence local or state officials in various ways.* Three ways in which the national government influences the others are:

- by ruling on what other governments may *not* do
- by offering monies to be used for designated purposes
- by performing services for other levels of government

Point 4: Another reason why the national government restrains its use of power is that both houses of the legislature of the national government are elected from states (upper house) and localities (lower house). *State and local interests are strongly represented at the national level.* (See the simplified diagram in the students' manual.)

Point 5: In the "federal system," *policy making is a process that almost always involves bargaining among the three levels of government.* The national government usually takes the initiat initiative in setting national goals and policy guidelines, but how these are carried out locally is typically a matter for debate, influence, politicking, and compromise.

Point 6: We tend to view the 80,000 governments in the U.S. as a kind of three-tiered "layer cake." But it is much more accurate to view the U.S. as having *"marble cake" government.*

An Overview of Governmental Functions in the U.S.

There are approximately 80,000 separate, autonomous governments within the United States. As of the year 1977, the number of the basic types of government were as follows:[1]

Federal (national) government	1
State governments	50
Local governments:	
County governments	3,042
Municipal and township governments	35,684
Special districts (except schools)	25,962
Independent school districts	15,174
	79,862

At first, it may seem preposterous that one nation should be run by 80,000 governments. However, one must keep in mind that the U.S. is a very large and diverse nation in terms of geography as well as human population, and that within so complex an entity there are countless things and procedures that need to be developed, implemented, managed, regulated, and altered if daily life is to proceed more or less smoothly. Governments large and small perform these functions. A peculiar characteristic of the people of the U.S. has been that they have consistently feared governments that are too large and powerful. They have wanted to insure that government remains responsive to the needs and opinions of the people it is intended to serve. With respect to any one governmental unit, therefore, this preference has meant that it be physically located as close as possible to the people it serves, that its powers be limited to those absolutely necessary to carry out its assigned function, that the number of its assigned functions be limited to as few as possible, and that its officials be responsible, indirectly if not directly, to the people affected by its policies and actions. These factors help to explain why virtually all of those 80,000 governments are *local* governments.

The Functions of Local Governments

The first fact to keep in mind about local governments in the U.S. is this: No matter where you are in this nation, you are almost surely within the jurisdiction of *several* local governments. The reason why this is true is that a very large number of what we are calling "local governments" are extremely limited in the scope of their responsibilities. More than half of the local governmental units in this country actually control a *single* function. The best known of these single-function, or "special" districts, are independent school districts. (Not all school districts are independent; some are administered by

officials attached to, and dependent upon, other units of local government such as townships.) Examples of other kinds of special districts are those designated to oversee matters such as water supply, fire protection, sewage disposal, soil conservation, irrigation, electric power distribution, housing, cemeteries, and so forth and so on.

More visible and significant than the single-function units are the general-purpose units of local government, especially municipal (city and town) and county governments. Let's look at some of the common functions performed by a city government, regardless of whether the city has a population of 15,000 or 15,000,000.

• FIRE PROTECTION: Although small towns still may have volunteer fire departments, virtually all cities now support professional fire fighters with up-to-date equipment. In some cities, the fire department includes "marshalls" who investigate arson and try to educate the public about fire prevention. The vast majority of fire fighters in the U.S. are employees of local governments.

• POLICE PROTECTION: City police departments are usually divided into two major units, one for traffic control and one for other forms of law enforcement. The latter unit may be subdivided into "squads" that specialize in homicide, narcotics, theft, junevile delinquency, family relations, prostitution, and so on. In cities, the top uniformed policeman is usually the "chief"; in counties, he is usually the "sheriff."

• WATER SUPPLY: The officials responsible for a city's water must build and maintain reservoirs and underground pipes, and insure that the water supply is kept pollution-free.

• WASTE DISPOSAL: Most cities of any size have employees who specialize in disposing of at least three types of waste: (1) industrial waste, such as liquid whey from creameries or bark from lumber mills; (2) residential waste and garbage; and (3) sewage from bathrooms and kitchens, a category that may include street run-off. Finding places to put our waste or ways to destroy it is becoming a major problem for local governments.

• GAS AND ELECTRICITY: Some cities own and operate municipal gas works and electricity generating plants; the word "socialism" is rarely used, however, to describe such ventures. In other cities, private companies carry out these vital functions, but they are closely regulated by the city government so that they won't abuse their status as a monopoly.

• STREETS: A large portion of the budget of any city is spent on building, maintaining, and cleaning its streets and sidewalks. In northern cities, much of this budget may be earmarked for the removal of snow and ice during the winter.

• PUBLIC HEALTH: Health departments at the city level perform services such as inspecting restaurants, inoculating school children against communicable diseases, investigating possible epidemics, running clinics for poor families, and so forth. Some cities also support public hospitals and mental institutions. City health officials work closely with state and federal health officials.

• PARKS AND RECREATION: Most cities have at least a modest park; some have golf courses, swimming pools, baseball diamonds, and other extensive facilities. Some even support major recreational and cultural events in their parks each year, which may be free to all.

• LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, AND ZOOS: Almost every city and town in the U.S. has its own library; the larger the city, the more likely it is to have other cultural opportunities for its citizens. Some of the largest cities even support symphony orchestras. Increasingly, financial support for activities of this type comes from three sources: (1) the city government, (2) private philanthropists, and (3) public contributions or "memberships." State and federal governments may also provide funds.

• ZONING OR PLANNING: Every locality needs some mechanism for deciding what may be built where, and what types of activities may be carried out where. In some cases, the emphasis may be on insuring orderly growth in the future; in other cases, the emphasis may be on preserving the status quo and not allowing residential property values to be lowered by the introduction of commercial and industrial operations into quiet neighborhoods.

• PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION: Most cities of moderate size have at least a few buses that run back and forth within the city limits. Large cities may have elaborate transportation systems including subways, and may regulate private taxi fleets and bus lines. Parking is another major concern of any city, town, or village in the U.S.A.

• WELFARE: Many local governments have employees whose function is to attend to the needs of the poor and indigent. Welfare officials usually must work closely with state and federal officials who have responsibility for welfare, since a large proportion of the money for welfare payments comes from these other levels of government.

• AIRPORTS AND HARBORS: Airports and harbors are often administered separately from other forms of transportation facilities, due to the high degree of technical competence that is required as well as the fact that the administrators of such operations must follow the guidance of federal officials on matters pertaining to interstate transportation.

• VOTER REGISTRATION AND ELECTIONS: City officials are responsible for registering eligible voters and for organizing and overseeing all elections. When state and/or federal elections are held, these officials must work closely with state and federal officials.

• RECORD KEEPING: All sorts of public records, such as births, deaths, property transfers, and so forth, must be maintained by local government. This is the job of the "clerk."

• CORONER: The function of the coroner is to investigate any deaths that are not clearly the result of natural causes. The coroner also may be responsible for the city morgue, where the bodies of unidentified dead persons are kept pending identification.

• PROSECUTION OF LAW-BREAKERS: The police arrest individuals who are suspected of breaking a local or state law, but the job of formally

bringing the suspect before a court is that of the "district attorney." This official acts in the name of all the people in trying to obtain a conviction. The defendent has the right to be represented in court by the "public defender," a lawyer paid by the local government, or he may hire his own lawyer.

• COURTS: Judges on the city payroll handle cases involving city and state laws, and deal with both civil and criminal cases of a relatively minor nature. In large cities, the court system may be broken into many subdivisions -- traffic court, small claims court, junevile court, family court, criminal court, and so forth . . . even night court.

• CORRECTIONS: Although the punishment of criminals is primarily a state function, there is hardly a city or town in the U.S. without its local jail. Large cities may have an elaborate correctional system.

• TAXATION: All these functions cost money, and municipalities get much of their money through taxation, especially property taxation. Carrying out this function requires not only collecting the money and keeping financial records, but also making formal assessments of the value of individual pieces of property and deciding into which tax category it should be placed. In a few of the largest cities, individual income taxes as well as general sales taxes may be levied against city residents.

• PUBLIC EDUCATION: Education has been placed last in this series of local government functions because it very often is *not* the responsibility of officials of the general-purpose local government, but rather of officials of a "special district" that is independent of those local officials. No matter how administered, the education of children from nursery school through high school is one of the most important functions of local government in the U.S. And the fact that education of children is the responsibility of *local* officials, rather than of state- or national-level officials, makes the United States highly unusual in world context.

The Functions of State Governments

To some extent, the fifty state governments perform functions that are similar to those of local governments, except that they do so in areas of the state where no general-purpose unit of local government exists to handle certain responsibilities. But it is also true that state-level officials handle different kinds of functions. Following is a sample of the most common responsibilities assumed by state governments.

• POLICE PROTECTION: Police at the state level sometimes are called the "highway patrol," demonstrating that their principal responsibility is traffic regulation on the many roads connecting towns and cities. However, state police also may become involved in investigative police work and always stand ready to be of assistance to municipal police or county sheriffs in times of crisis.

• NATIONAL GUARD: The National Guard is a branch of the federal military establishment, consisting almost entirely of part-time soldiers who train in the evenings and during the summer. These soldiers may be called to

active duty at any time by the President of the United States, but they also may be called to active duty by the Governor of the state. Nowadays they are rarely used as a police force, being activated most often to help cope with natural disasters.

• WATER SUPPLY: Because water resources are scattered around a state and usually do not exist within the territory controlled by municipal governments, state governments share responsibility for the protection and supply of water with both local and federal officials. (Federal officials become involved because the Constitution gives the national government jurisdiction over navigable streams and lakes.)

• HIGHWAYS AND VEHICLES: Roughly four out of five adults in the United States drive automobiles, and most of these drivers own an automobile. Anyone who drives and/or owns an automobile in the U.S. must deal with his or her state government directly. For it is the states that are responsible for insuring that drivers are properly trained, that all vehicles are safe and are registered, and that all roads and highways in the state (except county roads and city streets) are maintained in good condition. States tax gasoline and levy fees for licenses and car registrations, and in many cases also operate toll roads; the money collected from these sources is combined with money granted by the federal government to build and maintain highways. Administering highways, registering vehicles, and licensing drivers is a major activity of the government of all fifty states.

• PUBLIC HEALTH: State-level health officials work with both local and federal officials to treat and prevent communicable diseases, provide aid and guidance to pregnant women, inspect food and public eating establishments, and so forth. Whether local, state, or federal officials have primary responsibility in any individual case is determined by complex laws and regulations.

• PARKS AND FORESTS: Every state has set aside large tracts of land, both for purposes of conservation and for recreational use. These areas must be managed, protected from fire and blight, made available to the public on a controlled basis, and cleaned up after public use.

• FISH AND GAME: Every state government includes officials who are responsible for the protection of wild life. They not only issue hunting and fishing licenses, but also take active measures to conserve and to "manage" animal populations.

• AGRICULTURE: A department of agriculture has been included in every state government virtually from the day it was formed. The purpose of this department is to foster the productive use of the state's arable land by (1) helping the private farmer to raise superior produce, (2) assisting the farmer to sell his produce, (3) protecting the farmer and the consumer from fraud, (4) educating young farmers as well as experienced ones to new methods through agricultural colleges and extension services. State and federal agriculture officials cooperate regularly.

• WELFARE: Every state has a complex welfare system that is integrated into both its local welfare systems and that operated by the federal

government. Much of the money for welfare comes from federal funds (such as Social Security), but much of the work of administering the welfare system is carried out by state employees. Some of the concerns addressed by these employees are old-age assistance, aid to dependent children, foster care for children, and aid to poverty stricken individuals and families.

• CARE OF THE MENTALLY ILL: Running homes, hospitals, and schools for mentally ill children and adults is a responsibility of state-level officials almost exclusively. Some states also operate low-cost homes for the aged, and regulate private homes for the aged.

• REGULATION OF BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY: Interstate commerce -- that is, businesses and industries doing business across state lines -- is regulated primarily by the federal government. Otherwise, commerce is a concern of state governments. States issue charters of incorporation, which make a business a legal entity. State laws protect consumers from fraud, set limits on the rate of interest that a financial institution may charge, and monitor insurance companies, stock brokers, banks, and other organizations that handle large quantities of money. States also regulate so-called "natural monopolies" such as gas, telephone, and electricity companies (to the extent that these are not regulated by local governments); "public service commissions" not only limit the prices that these utilities may charge but also insure that they continue customer services that they might otherwise be tempted to discontinue. Some states have a liquor monopoly, selling all hard liquor in "state stores"; all states regulate in one way or another the sale and consumption of alcoholic beverages in public places, a responsibility that includes arbitrarily setting the minimum drinking age. Laws regulating businesses and industries are founded on the assumption that a state has a duty to protect it's consumers.

• REGULATION OF PROFESSIONS AND TRADES: Each state has a large number of boards and commissions that license and monitor the performance of tradesmen and professionals. Such boards protect the public from fraudulent practitioners, protect the occupation from unwarranted attacks by the public, establish standards of ethics and practice, and grant licenses to people who which to practice within the state. The list of trades and professions regulated is a long one: accountants, cosmetologists, dentists, chiropractors, medical doctors, embalmers, registered nurses, barbers, architects, and so on and so forth.

• REGULATION OF LABOR: To a considerable extent, labor is regulated by the federal government, but state governments also play a role. Some of the labor-related issues dealt with by states are the protection of the safety and health of workers, the settlement of labor disputes and strikes (and, in some cases, the prohibition of certain types of strikes), determination of maximum hours and minimum wages, limitation on the labor of children, prevention of discrimination in employment and promotions, establishment of "workmen's compensation" for employees injured on the job, regulation of unions of workers who work exclusively within the state, and provision of unemployment insurance (money paid to workers for a period of time after they are laid off).

• PROMOTION OF THE STATE FOR BUSINESS AND TOURISM: State governments attempt to make the state attractive to businesses and industries (so as to improve the state's employment opportunities), and to entice travelers and vacationers to spend time in the state (so as to bring outside money into the state's economy).

• STATE COURTS: Courts at the state level exist to try violations of the state's laws, and to hear appeals from the decisions of municipal courts. Like municipal courts, state courts may be divided into a number of different types of jurisdictional practice: civil cases, criminal cases, probate of wills, junevile courts, appeals from rulings of lower courts, and so forth. Most civil and criminal cases in the United States are tried in state-level courts.

• CORRECTIONS: The punishment and rehabilitation of criminals is largely a state-level responsibility. Correctional institutions also include "reform schools" for junevile offenders.

• EDUCATION: States do *not* run public schools. State-level departments of eduation exist largely to channel funds to local school districts, so that those with an inadequate property tax base can get additional funds to bring them up to standard. State education departments also provide consulting, advisory, and statistical services to local districts. Other functions include (depending on the state) inspection of facilities, approval of textbooks and equipment, licensing of teachers, and testing of students. States traditionally have aided education by running teachers colleges. All states also support public colleges and universities, some of which are among the best in the nation in spite of charging relatively low tuition fees.

• TAXATION: All these state-level services and functions cost money, and the money is raised through various types of taxation. Most states levy a general sales tax on goods and services, and many states have an individual income tax. Specific items taxed by states include beer and liquor, tobacco, motor fuels, insurance, public utilities, railroads, parimutuel betting and other legal gambling, franchises, corporate income, stock transfers, selected amusements, inheritances and estates (the so-called "death taxes"), and others. Fees and fines also bring money into the state treasury. Some states recently have been successful at raising money through state-operated lotteries.

The Functions of the Federal Government

The government of the United States is a highly complex organization that directs, oversees, or funds an enormous variety of procedures and operations, and that employs several million people. We will confine our review of its functions to a brief statement of the work of the thirteen cabinet-level departments.

• DEPARTMENT OF STATE: The Department of State determines and analyzes the facts relating to the interests of the U.S. abroad, makes recommendations on foreign policy to the President and the Congress, and takes

the necessary non-military steps to carry out established policy. The department engages in consultations (through its ambassadors) with the governments of other sovereign nations, negotiates treaties and agreements, and speaks for the U.S. in the United Nations and in more than fifty other international organizations.

• DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE: The Department of Defense is responsible for maintaining the military forces necessary to protect the United States. The major components of these forces are the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. The department is also ultimately responsible for the National Guard, which was discussed under the section on state functions.

• DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY: The Department of the Treasury handles the funds belonging to the United States government, and mints all money that is legal tender in the U.S. Other important functions of this department include the collection of customs duties and federal taxes, the investigation of interstate offenses involving alcohol, tobacco, and firearms, the administration of national banks, and the protection of the President and other dignitaries (by the "Secret Service").

• DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE: The Department of Justice, sometimes known as the largest law firm in the nation, enforces federal laws and protects the public from criminals and internal subversion. It also ensures healthy competition among business enterprises, safeguards the consumer against fraud, and enforces laws pertaining to drugs, immigration, and naturalization. The department prosecutes individuals suspected of violating federal laws, operates federal correctional institutions, and provides assistance to local and state police forces. Finally, the department represents the government in all legal matters generally and appears on the government's behalf before the Supreme Court of the U.S.

• DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE: This department encourages and promotes the nation's economic development and technological advancement. It offers assistance and information to domestic and international businesses, provides social and economic statistics to those who need them, runs the U.S. Merchant Marine, provides assistance to economically underdeveloped areas of the nation, seeks to improve understanding of the physical environment of the earth (including study of the oceans), promotes travel to the U.S. by residents of foreign nations, and assists in the growth of minority businesses.

• DEPARTMENT OF LABOR: This department administers over 100 federal laws pertaining to labor, such as those guaranteeing a worker's right to safe and healthful working conditions, to a minimum wage, to freedom from employment discrimination, and so forth. The department sponsors job training programs, protects workers' pension rights, and keeps track of changes in employment, prices, and other national economic measures.

• DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR: This department is the nation's principal conservation agency. It is responsible for most of the lands and natural resources owned or controlled by the federal government, and fosters the wise use of the flora and fauna found in the U.S. The Department of the Interior operates national parks and historic places, administers Indian reservations, and oversees the people who live in the several island territories over which the U.S. has sovereignty.

• DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT: This department administers the federal laws and programs that provide assistance to citizens with respect to housing and to the development of the nation's communities. It aids families to own homes, provides rental subsidies to people who could not otherwise afford a decent apartment, and works in numerous ways to preserve urban areas from decay. It also takes steps to protect the home buyer in the marketplace and to stimulate the housing industry.

• DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE: The Department of Agriculture works to improve and maintain farm income and to develop and expand markets abroad for U.S. agricultural produce. It helps landowners to protect and maintain their natural resources, administers the Food Stamp program for low-income residents of the U.S., and runs rural development, credit, and conservation programs. Perhaps most important, USDA officials inspect and grade much of the food consumed in the U.S., thus safeguarding the daily food supply.

• DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION: This department establishes the nation's overall transportation policy with respect to highway planning and construction, urban mass transit, railroads, aviation, ports and waterways, pipelines, and the transportation of materials across state lines. Department officials provide advice and consultation to local and state officials responsible for transportation.

• DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND WELFARE: This department is in charge of a great variety of programs that directly affect large numbers of people in the United States. Some of the services it provides are for children, youth, handicapped people, the mentally retarded, Indians, the aged, and the ill. Some well known agencies within this department are the Center for Disease Control, the Food and Drug Administration, the National Institutes of Health, and the Social Security Administration.

• DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION: The Department of Education is largely involved in administering programs of financial and technical assistance to state and local education agencies. Many of these programs are intended to help overcome special problems in local school districts, such as racial discrimination, non-English-speaking students, handicapped students, and so forth. Others are intended to promote special programs that local districts could not afford on their own, such as career education, consumer education, and teacher training. The department also makes financial assistance available to students.

• DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY: This department, very recently created, brings together many energy-related agencies that previously existed within a number of other departments of the federal government. The work of the department includes the monitoring and regulation of energy-producing utilities as well as basic research into existing and new forms of energy.

Some critical functions performed by the federal government are the responsibility of independent agencies such as the U.S. Postal Service, the Securities and Exchange Commission, the Federal Reserve System, the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, the Federal Communications Commission, the Civil Aeronautics Board, and many others, including the Federal Courts.

"Federalism" -- How 80,000 Governments Work Together

Clearly, some governmental functions must be carried out on the national level. The military establishment *must* serve the whole nation under one Commander-in-Chief; it would be terribly dangerous for every city and state to have its own army, even if it could afford it. Air traffic, which criss-crosses the nation in a thousand different directions every day, *must* be monitored and controlled by a single governmental unit. The postal service *must* unify the entire nation and link it with other nations. And money *must* be minted by a single authority. Nevertheless, insofar as possible, *governmental functions are administered locally by officials who are elected by local people and who are not accountable to other government officials at some "higher" level.* These locally controlled functions include some that, in almost all other countries, are administered at the national level. Two of the best examples are education and public safety. Throughout the world, these two vital responsibilities are most often held by ministries of the central government: the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of the Interior. But in the United States, public education is controlled by some 15,000 independent school districts, and by other local school officials who are dependent on municipal or township governments. There is a Department of Education at the national level, but it does *not* run local schools. With respect to police, the vast majority in the U.S. are under the control of local (city, town, village, and county) governments, and comparatively few are under the control of state governments. There is also a police force at the national level (the Federal Bureau of Investigation, under the Department of Justice), but it is very small when compared to the total number of state and local police. Furthermore, its responsibilities are limited to certain matters such as violations of federal laws, espionage, civil rights cases, and cases in which criminals have crossed state lines. The police forces at the state and local levels are *not* under the direction of federal officials.

It is true, of course, that the most powerful of all the 80,000 governments in the U.S. is the federal (national) government; it has authority over much of inestimable importance. So when we say that local and state governments are separate and autonomous, and that local officials are not under the control of federal officials, we need to be clear about what we mean. For the federal government often may be in a position to *influence* decisions made at the state and local levels. There are three ways in which the federal government can influence state and local governments:

(1) The federal government may lay down rules about what local and state governments may *not* do; that is, it may lay down guidelines within which other governments must operate. For example, the federal government has said that states cannot restrict the right to vote because of race or sex. This is not the same as controlling rules and procedures for voting within a state; the federal government is only saying, in effect, "Run your voting procedures any way you like so long as you don't deny people the right to vote because of their race or sex."

(2) The federal government may make money available to state and local governments *if* that money will be used for a specified purpose. For example, the federal Department of Education offers to give money to local school districts if they will run certain kinds of programs for children

who cannot speak English because their parents are immigrants. This is not the same as running the local schools; the federal government is only saying, in effect, "Run your local schools any way you like, but here is a lot of money, including money for overhead (general expenses of the district), if you will run a certain kind of special program for your non-English-speaking children."

(3) The federal government may perform a service for a state or local government that the latter is unable to perform for itself, and in the process may influence policies and procedures at the lower level. For example, the Department of Justice, through the Federal Bureau of Investigation, provides training for state and local police officers and also operates a national fingerprint file as well as a crime information center. State and local police departments *could* ignore the existence of these services and facilities, but they would be foolish to do so because they would need enormous amounts of money as well as many highly trained experts to duplicate them. As they use these federal services and facilities, they inevitably are influenced by them, with the result that state and local police methods are becoming standardized all over the nation. But this is certainly not the same as having all police departments in the nation administered directly from Washington, D.C.

In our system of "federalism," we have succeeded rather well at striking a balance between two extremes. One extreme would be the case in which state and local officials simply carry out the orders of national officials -- a situation that U.S. people would not tolerate. The opposite extreme would be one in which each little government would take absolutely no account of any of the others -- a situation that would soon create absolute chaos. Neither of these extreme cases is characteristic of government in the United States, however, because *all levels and types of government are embedded in a "federal system," a system in which the national government is paramount but not in a position to dictate to governmental units at "lower" levels.* In the federal system, policy making (except for foreign affairs) is a process that almost always involves a considerable amount of bargaining. The national government more often than not is the one that takes the initiative in formulating national goals and policy guidelines, but of course these are worthless unless they lead to new or altered activities at the state and local levels. And what is actually *done* at these lower levels is a matter for debate, for politicking, for influence to decide. National guidelines may be accepted and followed by state and local officials. But they also can be reshaped to suit local interests. And they can be evaded or ignored. Conflict and controversy may be settled by the naked use of force on the part of the more powerful federal government. But this is rare. More often, there is a compromise. Sometimes there's a stalemate.

"Federalism" is the word that sums up the relationships between and among the 80,000 governments found in the U.S.A. Our tendency to think of these governments as a kind of three-tiered "layer cake" is an oversimplification. Morton Grodzins, an eminent student of intergovernmental relations counsels us to view our federal system instead as a "marble cake" in which federal, state, and local officials are all involved in most decisions.[2]

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[1] R.P. Nathan & M.N. Nathan. *America's Governments.* John Wiley & Sons (New York, NY), 1979. p. xiv.

[2] Quoted in J.W. Fesler (Ed.), *The 50 States and Their Local Governments.* Alfred A. Knopf (New York, NY), 1967. p. 14.

Functions of Local Government in the U.S.

- Fire protection
- Police protection
- Water supply
- Waste disposal
- Gas and electricity supply
- Street building and maintenance
- Public health
- Parks and recreation
- Libraries, museums, zoos
- Zoning or planning
- Public transportation
- Welfare
- Airports and harbors
- Voter registration and elections
- Record keeping
- Coroner
- Prosecution of law-breakers
- Local courts
- Correctional institutions
- Taxation
- Public education

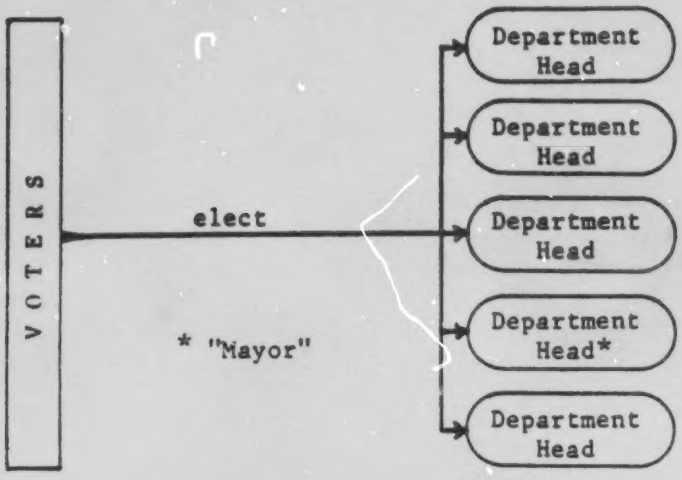
Functions of State Government in the U.S.

- Police protection
- National Guard
- Water supply
- Highways and vehicles
- Public health
- Parks and forests
- Fish and game management
- Agriculture
- Welfare
- Care of the mentally ill
- Regulation of business and industry
- Regulation of professions and trades
- Regulation of labor
- Promotion of business and tourism
- State courts
- Correctional institutions
- Aid to education
- Taxation

Departments and Key Agencies of the Federal Government

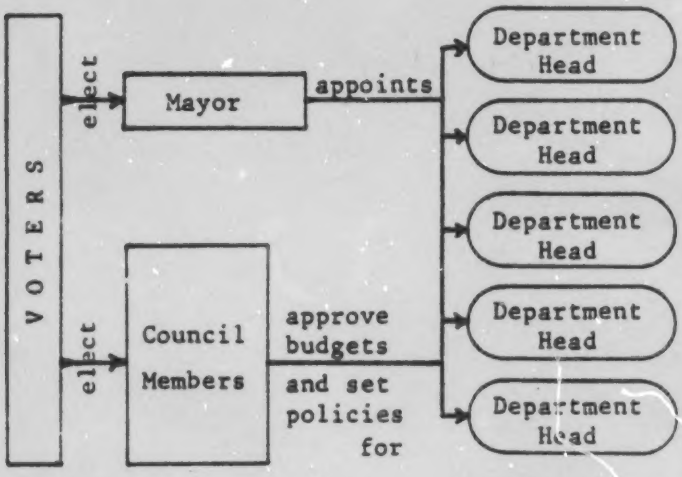
- State (foreign affairs)
- Defense
- Treasury
- Justice
- Commerce
- Labor
- Interior
- Housing and Urban Development
- Agriculture
- Transportation
- Health and Welfare
- Education
- Energy
- Postal Service
- Securities and Exchange Commission
- Federal Reserve System
- Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation
- Federal Communications Commission
- Civil Aeronautics Board
- Federal Courts

Three Models of Local Government in the United States



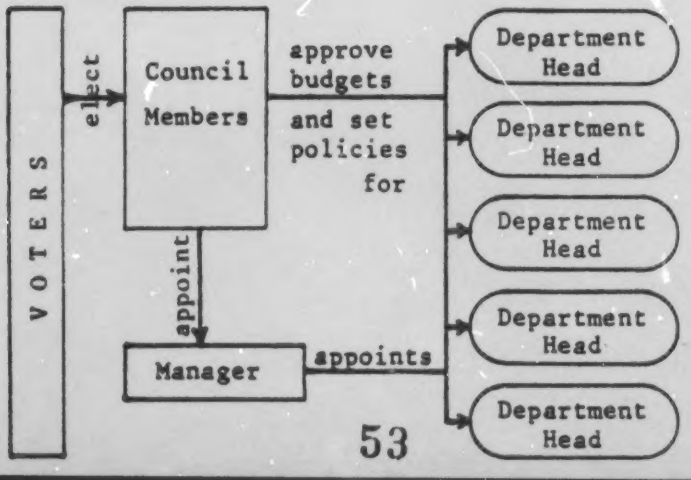
COMMISSION MODEL

Department heads are each directly elected by the voters. They meet together to develop budgets, set policies, and oversee the locality. The department heads select one of their number to serve as the "mayor"; he or she has little or no formal power but may gain in influence.



MAYOR/COUNCIL MODEL

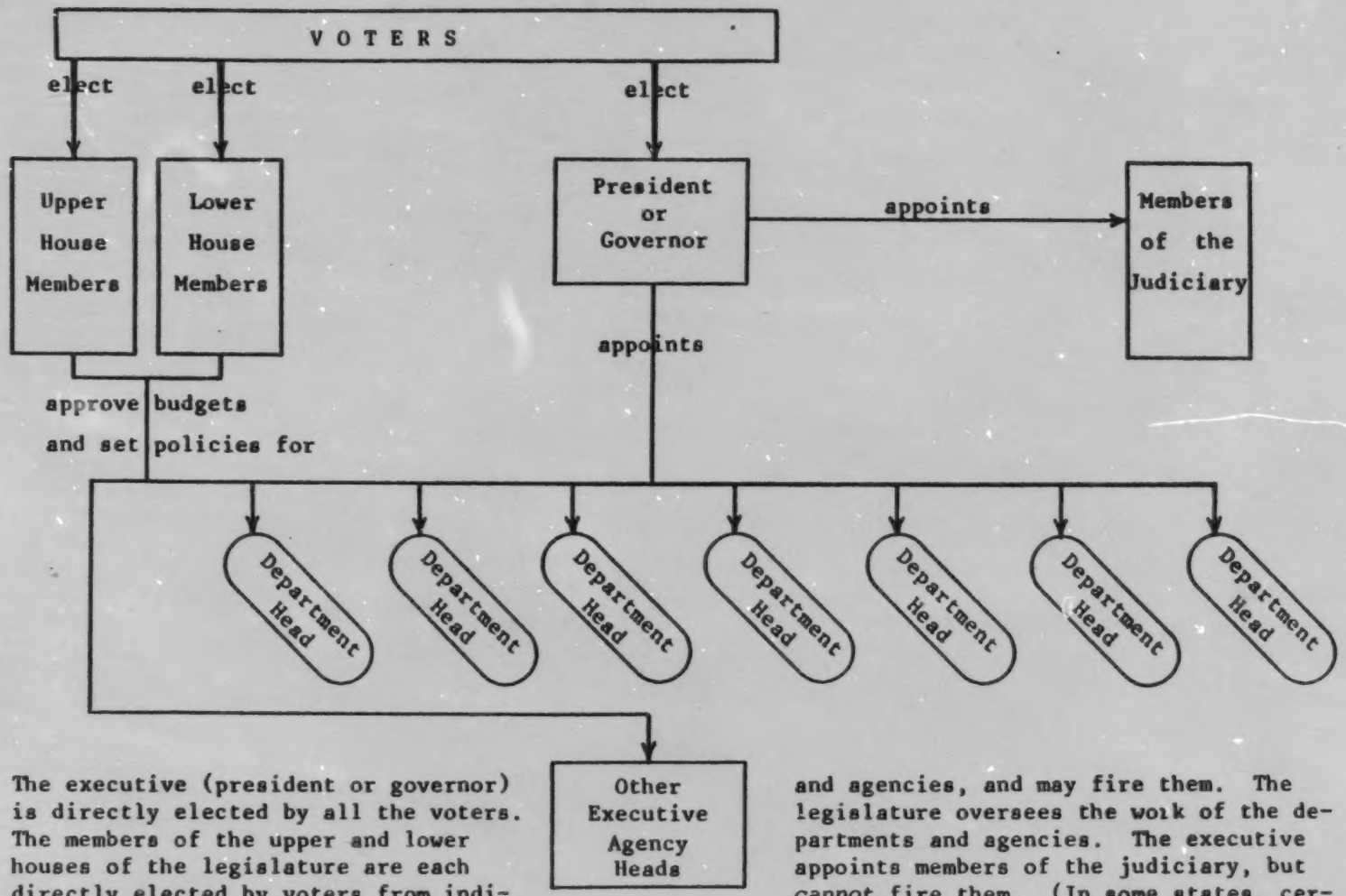
The mayor and each member of the Council (legislature) are directly elected by the voters. The mayor appoints the department heads, and may fire them. The Council oversees the work of the departments. In this model, the mayor and the Council are both independently powerful.



COUNCIL/MANAGER MODEL

The members of the Council (legislature) are directly elected by the voters. They recruit and appoint a manager (a professional administrator), and may fire him. The manager appoints the department heads and may fire them. In this model, the Council oversees the work of the manager as well as of the departments; the manager is not independently powerful.

Simplified Model of Federal and State Governments in the United States



The executive (president or governor) is directly elected by all the voters. The members of the upper and lower houses of the legislature are each directly elected by voters from individual geographic areas; the members represent their respective areas in the legislature. The executive appoints the heads of the departments and agencies, and may fire them. The legislature oversees the work of the departments and agencies. The executive appoints members of the judiciary, but *cannot* fire them. (In some states, certain members of the judiciary are directly elected by the voters.) Executive, legislature, and judiciary are all independently powerful in an arrangement such as this.

IV-S-3.

Homestay Program Orientation

HISTORY OF THE U.S.A.: FOCUS ON KEY PRESIDENTS

Leader's Guide

Objectives:

1. To provide a brief overview of five important periods in the history of the United States: the founding of the nation, the Civil War era, the Progressive Era, the Great Depression, and the upheavals of the 1960s.
2. To discuss the personalities, careers, and major political actions of the five U.S. presidents most closely associated with those periods: George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Lyndon B. Johnson.
3. To present drawings, paintings, and photographs depicting these five presidents as well as a variety of scenes from the five historical periods to be reviewed.

Students' Materials:

Homestay Program Orientation Manual (one per student)

Leader's Materials:

1. For preparatory reading, see *Highlights of American History: Five Presidents*, included herein.
2. A room that can be made dark and that has a white or very light colored smooth wall on which slides can be projected.
3. The following two items, available through the AFS person in charge:
   - Carosel of 70 pre-arranged slides depicting five eras in U.S. history *(see page V-25)*
   - Projector capable of using the carosel.

Time Required:

Approximately two hours, structured as follows:

25 minutes: Part I - George Washington and the Founding of the Nation
25 minutes: Part II - Abraham Lincoln and the Civil War
25 minutes: Part III - Theodore Roosevelt and the Progressive Era
25 minutes: Part IV - Franklin D. Roosevelt and the Great Depression
25 minutes: Part V - Lyndon B. Johnson and the Upheavals of the 1960s

Discussion:

The pages immediately following contain the captions for the 70 slides. It is suggested that instead of showing all the slides at once, you show each segment separately and follow each showing with a presentation and discussion of other salient points about that historical period and

the president associated with it. No point-by-point sequence is suggested below for these presentations. It is assumed that you will be able to develop them, and to lead a discussion, on the basis of the information in the preparatory reading, in the students' manual, and in your own storehouse of knowledge about the history of the United States.

Slide 1: (F4) The Seal of the President of the United States. (This slide is placed first to serve as an introduction to the entire set of slides.)

PART I -- GEORGE WASHINGTON AND THE FOUNDING OF THE NATION

Slide 2: (F10) This is a late nineteenth century postcard that recalls the legent of the young boy George Washington who chopped down the cherry tree but could not lie to his father about doing it. This story (and many others) was the invention of Parson Weems, and first appeared in his book, *The Life and Memorable Actions of George Washington*. It is widely believed to be true by people in the United States.

Slide 3: (B13) This is an engraving depicting the Battle of Lexington, Massachusetts, the opening skirmish of the Revolutionary War, which occurred on April 19, 1775. The Americans had been ordered to withdraw from the green at Lexington in the face of overwhelming superiority in numbers of the British. But the Americans did not withdraw (why is not clear), and someone fired the first shot, "the shot heard round the world." The British claimed that the Americans fired it, and vice versa. Eight American "minutemen" were killed and ten were wounded, but they rallied and routed three companies of "redcoats" at the North Bridge of Concord, not far away.

Slide 4: (B23) This engraving shows George Washington assuming command of the Continental Army on the village green of Cambridge, Massachusetts, on July 3, 1775.

Slide 5: (B27) George Washington and his men are shown crossing the ice-packed Delaware River in driving snow on Christmas Day, 1776. This daring night-time raid on Trenton, New Jersey, enabled the Continental Army to capture more than 900 British mercenaries (Hessians, from Germany) as well as many arms. The mercenaries had been drinking heavily and were in no condition to fight.

Slide 6: (B37) The Continental Army suffered a horrible winter at Valley Forge, Pennsylvania, during the winter of 1777-78. Blankets were in such short supply that many of the soldiers

had to remain awake at night sitting by fires to keep warm. The severe winter, short supplies, and disease made it very difficult for Washington to hold the army together.

Slide 7: (B46) Washington and some of his generals are shown at Yorktown, Virginia.

Slide 8: (B47) Washington and the British commander, Lord Cornwallis, at Yorktown, where the British made their final surrender to the Continental Army in October 1781. This is an artist's conception -- in actuality, Cornwallis himself was not present at the surrender ceremony.

Slide 9: (B51) Washington is shown resigning his commission as commander-in-chief of the Continental Army in 1783.

Slide 10: (F5) George Washington in 1783, just at the time he resigned his commission and returned to private life at Mount Vernon, Virginia.

Slide 11: (F9) Martha Custis, a widow who married Washington in 1759. She distinguished herself as a gracious hostess. She and Washington adopted two of her grandchildren after their father died.

Slide 12: (F7) George Washington during the 1790s, when he was the first president of the United States.

PART II -- ABRAHAM LINCOLN AND THE CIVIL WAR

Slide 13: (H39) This is an illustration that appeared in the famous anti-slavery novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe. The book both solidified the determination of the abolitionists in the North, and drove people in the South closer together for protection of their way of life.

Slide 14: (H13) In this photograph, a slave shows the scars left from a severe beating.

Slide 15: (H16) Slaves at rest on a Southern plantation. Music was a key means of diversion and self-expression for the slaves.

Slide 16: (H40) This political cartoon depicted the view of many people in the North concerning the Democratic Party's platform of 1856, which endorsed the Kansas-Nebraska Act and the idea of "popular sovereignty." The approval by the Democrats of the introduction of slavery into U.S. territories led to the formation of the new Republican Party, which Abraham Lincoln soon joined.

Slide 17: (H42) Slaves on the deck of a ship docked at Key West, Florida, in April 1860. These slaves had been brought into the

United States illegally, since the importation of slaves was prohibited in 1809.

Slide 18: (N12) Coincidentally, oil was discovered for the first time in the U.S. in 1860, at Titusville, Pennsylvania.

Slide 19: (F59) This political banner promotes the election of Abraham Lincoln and his running mate, Hannibal Hamlin, in the election of 1860.

Slide 20: (F62) Abraham Lincoln photographed in 1860 sometime before his inauguration. Note that he has not yet grown a beard.

Slide 21: (F64) Abraham Lincoln, with beard, after he became President of the United States.

Slide 22: (D14) Fort Sumter, South Carolina, is shown in this painting as it appeared before its bombardment in the spring of 1861. The bombardment almost completely destroyed the fort, and began the Civil War.

Slide 23: (D26) This photograph shows Lincoln visiting the battlefield at Antietam, Maryland, in October 1862. One of the generals in the photo is George McClellan, who was fired by Lincoln a month later for incompetence following the escape of the Southern army across the Potomac river. Had McClellan pursued the Confederate forces following the battle (at which time the river was flooded) the Civil War might have been shortened by years.

Slide 24: (H47) This is an artist's romanticized conception of the reaction of the slaves to the Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863. To some extent, the Emancipation Proclamation was a sham because it purported to free slaves in only those areas where the Union forces had no effective control. Perhaps it is more significant as a signal that the North was fighting to end slavery, not only to preserve the Union (as Lincoln had originally stated).

Slide 25: (D35) These are only a few of the 43,500 casualties left after the three-day Battle of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, in July 1863, at which time the Union forces were able to stop the advance of the Confederates toward the North. Thus was the tide of the war turned.

Slide 26: (D58) General Ulysses S. Grant, photographed at Cold Harbor, Virginia, in June 1864. At about the time this picture was taken, Grant ordered a frontal assault on Confederate fortifications, resulting in the loss of 7000 Union soldiers in less than one hour. It was Grant's willingness to pursue victory at all costs that brought his to Lincoln's attention; Grant's initials, U.S., were sometimes said to stand for "unconditional surrender." Carnage such as occurred at Cold Harbor was only

somewhat worse than usual in this bloodiest of all wars in which the United States has participated. Grant later became President of the U.S., and is generally reckoned to have been one of the worst of all U.S. presidents.

Slide 27: (D76) The ruins of Richmond, Virginia, capital of the Confederate States of America, following its capture by Union forces in April 1865.

Slide 28: (F71) The last portrait of Abraham Lincoln, taken less than a week before his assassination.

Slide 29: (D78) This is an artist's conception of the assassination of Lincoln at Ford's Theater on April 14, 1865. Sitting next to Lincoln is his wife, Mary Todd. Already grief-stricken over the sudden loss of their son soon after Lincoln became president, she became mentally unbalanced following Lincoln's assassination.

Slide 30: (D79) This "wanted" poster offered large rewards for the capture of the conspirators who participated in the plot to assassinate Lincoln as well as other high government officials. (Only Lincoln was assassinated.)

PART III -- THEODORE ROOSEVELT AND THE PROGRESSIVE ERA

Slide 31: (K8) This photograph, taken in 1888, shows a farm family in front of their sod house in Nebraska. Note that the same bolt of cloth has been used to make the clothing of several members of the family.

Slide 32: (K14) A farmer in his barnyard in Germantown, Pennsylvania, in about 1900. There had been an agricultural depression in the U.S. in the early 1890s, the result of overproduction.

Slide 33: (N43) A steam engine manufacturing shop in Racine, Wisconsin, in 1900.

Slide 34: (N74) Workers in a meat packing plant in Chicago in 1905. At this time, Chicago was "hog butcher to the world."

Slide 35: (N45) "Breaker boys" in a coal mine in Pennsylvania around 1900. These lads had to separate coal from slate, a dangerous job that could result in the loss of a finger or a hand.

Slide 36: (N40) Immigrants seeking admission to the United States at Ellis Island, in New York harbor. Between 1890 and 1924, some twelve million immigrants entered the U.S. Only those in "steerage" went to Ellis Island for medical and other admissions procedures. First and second class passangers were disembarked in Manhattan.

Slide 37: (M38) The "Rough Riders," photographed in 1898. Theodore Roosevelt is second from the left in the second row. He was second in command. The Rough Riders were far more useful in winning subsequent campaigns for Roosevelt than they were in winning the Spanish-American War.

Slide 38: (F115) Theodore Roosevelt as a Rough Rider, photographed at Montauk Point, New York, after he had returned from the war. Later in this same year he was elected governor of New York.

Slide 39: (F100) A McKinley-Roosevelt campaign poster from the election of 1900. Note the claim that the Republicans brought prosperity to the country following the depression of the 1890s under the Democrats. (McKinley was elected president for the first time in 1896.)

Slide 40: (F113) Theodore Roosevelt, photographed in 1906, during his presidency.

Slide 41: (F116) This political cartoon appeared in 1906, and shows Roosevelt and his huge Navy. Because of his aggressive diplomacy and willingness to make a show of the U.S. fleet, T.R.'s foreign policy was often characterized by his statement, "Speak softly and carry a big stick."

Slide 42: (F119) Roosevelt in 1910, after he had returned from Africa and discovered that he was disappointed in the performance of his hand-picked successor, William H. Taft.

Slide 43: (F118) This campaign banner was used during Roosevelt's unsuccessful bid to re-capture the presidency on the ticket of the Progressive or "Bull Moose" Party.

PART IV -- FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT AND THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Slide 44: (M54) The leaders of the United States Navy, photographed in 1918. Franklin D. Roosevelt, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, is standing third from the left.

Slide 45: (F141) F.D.R. as vice presidential nominee of the Democratic Party in 1920, before his polio attack.

Slide 46: (K36) This is a soup kitchen, where people could obtain a free meal. Soup kitchens were familiar sights in urban areas during the Great Depression.

Slide 47: (K38) This huge dust storm was photographed in Colorado in 1935. A severe drought made such storm common in the central part of the nation in the mid-1930s, and ruined countless farmers.

Slide 48: (K35) This scene was photographed in a school classroom in Tennessee during the Great Depression.

Slide 49: (K45) This person is moving to the western part of the nation to seek a better life during the Great Depression. Many people in the U.S. were forced to relocate in the 1930s.

Slide 50: (N86) This man in Detroit is demonstrating his willingness to take a job. Photographed sometime during the 1930s.

Slide 51: (N87) This man in New York is trying to make a living by selling apples. Many others did likewise.

Slide 52: (N108) Shacks of industrial workers in Patterson, New Jersey, photographed in 1937.

Slide 53: (F142) Franklin Delano Roosevelt, photographed early during his presidency.

Slide 54: (F143) Eleanor Roosevelt, who carved out a career for herself above and beyond that of being the "First Lady." She wrote books and a newspaper column, and gained a well-deserved international reputation as a champion of civil and human rights. At one point she served as a delegate to the United Nations.

Slide 55: (N99) Franklin Roosevelt is shown signing into law one of the most important pieces of legislation passed during the "New Deal": the Social Security Act. August 1935.

Slide 56: (F146) This chart was prepared in 1933, soon after F.D.R. became president, in order to explain the many items of legislation passed during the "first hundred days" and how they were attempting to cope with the various threats to the welfare of the public.

Slide 57: (F145) This political cartoon, which appeared in 1934, depicts F.D.R. trying to explain the proliferation of New Deal agencies, known collectively to many as "alphabet soup."

Slide 58: (M112) Franklin Roosevelt is shown aboard a battleship during the Second World War.

Slide 59: (M109) Roosevelt is shown with Winston Churchill and Joseph Stalin at Yalta in February 1945, only two months before his death.

PART V -- LYNDON B. JOHNSON AND THE UPHEAVALS OF THE 1960s

Slide 60: (F153) Lyndon Johnson at the time he was Majority Leader of the U.S. Senate and perhaps the most powerful person in the national legislature. This photo was taken during the late 1950s.

Slide 61: (H122) This photo, taken in Mississippi in 1939, is evidence of racial segregation in the United States.

Slide 62: (H150) In this scene, a Black child and his parent are being denied entrance to a public school in North Carolina sometime during the 1950s.

Slide 63: (H161) This photograph shows a portion of the crowd that demonstrated on behalf of civil rights in Washington, DC, in August 1963. This is believed to have been the largest protest march in the history of the United States.

Slide 64: (H163) Civil rights leaders are shown meeting with President John F. Kennedy and Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson in August 1963. Martin Luther King, the great civil rights leader who was later assassinated, is fifth from the left.

Slide 65: (H170) Civil rights marchers are arrested in Selma, Alabama, in March 1965. The violence perpetrated on the protesters was partially responsible for Lyndon Johnson's Address on Voting Rights, delivered to Congress about one week later.

Slide 66: (F160) Lyndon Baines Johnson photographed while he was President of the United States.

Slide 67: (M146) U.S. soldiers in South Vietnam in 1967. The helicopter was a key weapon in this highly mobile jungle war against guerilla fighters.

Slide 68: (M150) U.S. soldiers on patrol somewhere in Vietnam during the 1960s. During the height of U.S. involvement in Vietnam, about half a million U.S. troops were stationed there.

Slide 69: (R25) Military police are shown keeping demonstrators away from the Pentagon, the headquarters of the U.S. military, during one of many protests against the involvement of the United States in Vietnam. October 1967.

Slide 70: (R28) U.S. marshalls remove a demonstrator during the giant protest march in October 1967. The protests against U.S. involvement in Vietnam became so massive that Lyndon Johnson decided not to seek another term as president in the election of 1968.

Highlights of American History: Five Presidents[1]

George Washington and the Founding of the Nation

George Washington is as legendary and respected as any figure in United States history. Besides being the first president of the new nation, he was once said to be "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." Most people in the U.S. do not know that he was criticized roundly during his lifetime for military ineptness, political corruption, personal treachery, and even for allegedly stealing from the U.S. Treasury! His elevation to the status of demigod was to a considerable extent the work of Mason Locke Weems, an Episcopal parson who wrote a biography of Washington that first appeared in 1800, less than a year following Washington's death. Weems attributed all kinds of virtues to Washington. It was Weems who originated the story about the cherry tree, now well known by virtually every school child in the U.S.

Washington was born in 1732 in Virginia, the first child of a slaveholding planter and his wife. His father, who was huge and fabulously strong, died when he was eleven. After that, Washington escaped from his mother whenever he could to visit relatives and friends. (In later life, his mother refused to have anything to do with him, feeling that he had neglected her.) He had a rudimentary education in math-related subjects and surveying, and was thought to be practical ("a man of hands") rather than a thinker. Through his half brother Lawrence, who had married the daughter of a wealthy Virginia planter, George became a familiar figure in upper-class Virginia society.

At age sixteen, Washington began working as a surveyor, for which he was paid extraordinarily well, perhaps because of his social position. With his earnings, he was able to purchase 1,459 acres of land by the time he was nineteen. At this time, he accompanied Lawrence to Barbados, where the latter hoped to recover from tuberculosis. Instead, Lawrence died and George contracted smallpox, which left his face permanently pockmarked. At age twenty-one, Washington was commissioned a major in the militia of Virginia, and was assigned to go to a French fort in the Ohio valley to deliver an ultimatum from the British. The French refused to leave the area. Washington, accompanied only by a guide, returned on foot through deep snow over a distance of some 500 miles; with 50 miles remaining, he was forced to cross the ice-jammed Allegheny River, into which he fell. His ability to survive this terrible ordeal is a testimony to his great strength and stamina. During the following five years, Washington served as a lieutenant colonel, then colonel (and commander-in-chief) of the Virginia militia, and saw action against both the French and the Indians. Among other things, he quartered his men at a poorly sited and abandoned fort, where he was forced to surrender to the French. It was largely for this reason that his military skill was later criticized.

In 1759, Washington married Martha Custis, a widow whose enormous wealth in land and slaves made him perhaps the richest man in Virginia. At this time Washington began sixteen years of private life as a tobacco planter,

land speculator, and church vestryman. He became committed to the gradual abolition of the slave trade, and, even though he had more slaves than he needed, he refused to sell any of them without their consent. He is known to have had a lifelong love for the wife of one of his neighbors, but there is not evidence that this relationship was consummated.

By 1774, Washington had begun to participate actively in the economic and political rebellion of the colonies against British rule. He was elected as a delegate from Virginia to attend the First Continental Congress, which brought together representatives from all the colonies to discuss what steps were to be taken against the British. He also served as a delegate to the Second Continental Congress, where he was unanimously elected commander-in-chief of the proposed Continental Army. For seven years he led the ragtag army, constantly plagued by inadequate weapons, horrible food, chronic desertion, bitter winters, unreliable intelligence, mercantile profiteering, uncooperative colonial governors, and short terms of conscription that forced him to repeatedly train raw recruits. But when matters seemed hopeless, Washington would move with great daring, as he did on the Christmas night in 1776 when he and his men silently rowed across the icy Delaware River and captured some 900 sleeping British mercenaries. With the aid of the French, victory for Washington and the Continental Army came at Yorktown, Virginia, in October 1781. It has been said that he won in spite of his numerous difficulties because he avoided meeting his enemies on their own terms and was a master of tactical retreat, maneuver at night, and surprise attack. In addition, he possessed magnetic leadership abilities, which probably help account for his ability to keep the army together through unbelievably difficult times such as the winter at Valley Forge.

Immediately after the war there was a formal movement to persuade Washington to accept a crown and mend the nation's political rivalries by becoming King. His response to this idea is noteworthy: "Such ideas . . . I must view with abhorrence and reprehend with severity." He resigned his commission and returned home to Virginia as a private citizen, aged 51.

The first government of the new nation was organized under the Articles of Confederation, which proved to be completely ineffective in uniting the thirteen liberated colonies. In 1787, a convention was convened in Philadelphia for the purpose of considering a new set of rules for the government; Washington attended as a delegate from Virginia, and unanimously was elected to chair the proceedings. He is said to have presided over this Constitutional Convention "with a grave and paternal silence" and to have been "above fray and faction." In the only speech he made at the convention, he urged a large House of Representatives (that is, one with a relatively small number of constituents per representative) as a more adequate "security for the rights and interests of the people." It is also said that the members of the convention agreed on a relatively strong role for the president for the new republic because they tended to think of Washington as the first person who would fill that role.

The new Constitution was ratified in 1788, and early in 1789 the electoral college named George Washington as the first President of the reorganized government. Washington reluctantly accepted, and was inaugurated in New York City a few steps from where the New York Stock Exchange now stands. During his first four years in office, he tried to remain non-political.

He toured all thirteen states in a symbolic gesture of unity, avoided personal advocacy of any legislation, and limited his messages to the Congress to optimistic homilies. To his Cabinet he named outstanding men of various points of view. It was said that neither hatred nor friendship could bias his decisions -- a characteristic that sometimes earned him the rebuke of his friends. But he also set a precedent for the exercise of strong presidential authority in matters where the Constitution was ambiguous or silent, and he purposefully maintained the presidential mansion in an elegant and highly dignified (some said glacial) fashion that was intended to force respect from foreign diplomats and U.S. citizens alike.

Towards the end of his first term, Washington's administration was shaken by the acrimonious and increasingly public debate between the Secretary of State, Thomas Jefferson, and the Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton. Hamilton, young and brilliant, was determined to put the new nation's financial structure on a sound footing; he proposed measures such as having the national government assume the debts of all the states, creating a strong central bank to issue official currency, and enacting various taxes and tariffs. Jefferson, an agrarian democrat who feared concentration of wealth and power, was insensed over what he regarded as flagrant collusion of political and financial oligarcies. Washington accepted a second term as president largely to provide a bridge between those who sided with Hamilton and those who sided with Jefferson. During his second term, he became increasingly drawn into political controversies and subject to attacks in the press, which troubled him deeply. The resignations of both Hamilton and Jefferson from his Cabinet did little to change Washington's fortunes.

At the end of his second term, in 1796, Washington delivered his famous Fairwell Address. In it, he warned against the debilitating effects of sectionalism, excessive party spirit, and the "insidious wiles of foreign influence." He counseled strongly against both permanent alliances and permanent animosities with other nations, urging instead "temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies." He retired quite happily to his home in Virginia, and returned to planting. He died in December, 1799, at the age of 68.

Washington was one of the most involved participants in the events associated with the founding of the United States. He played a substantial role in the life of the British colonies, in the war for independence, in the creation of the Constitution, and in the first years of the new republic under that Constitution. He placed an indelible stamp on the presidency of the U.S., helping to make it a symbol of national unity as well as an office where decisive action could be taken in the name of all the people. He can take some credit for the nation's economic well-being during its early years because he saw fit to accept Hamilton's ideas. And he should be remembered, too, for vigorously spurning a crown that he very probably could have had if he only had not said no.

Abraham Lincoln and the Divided Nation

Abraham Lincoln is almost as revered in the U.S. as is Washington. An eminent historian called Lincoln "the collective wish-fulfillment of the American people," and one of Lincoln's contemporaries said that he was "the greatest character since Christ." Lincoln is often treated as though he rose almost reluctantly from obscurity because of his natural brilliance and charisma, heeding the call of his fellow countrymen. But his law partner has another story: "Lincoln's ambition was a little engine that knew no rest. He was always calculating and planning ahead."

Among the most celebrated facts about Lincoln are the details of his humble birth. He was born in 1809 in a one-room, dirt-floored log cabin in the back woods of Kentucky. His father was a Baptist and a carpenter by trade, able barely to write his own name. His mother, apparently the illegitimate daughter of a Virginia aristocrat, died when Lincoln was nine. By that time, the family had moved to Indiana, where Abe helped construct their new cabin. Lincoln's father quickly married again; Abe's step-mother encouraged his interest in reading, which his father disapproved of because it kept the boy from his chores. However, the family's economic situation was grim, and Abe had to help out in many ways. As a young lad he acquired a reputation for his use of the axe to rapidly fell trees, and for his habits of thinking, telling stories, and reading (by candlelight if necessary, according to legend). One of the books that deeply affected him was Parson Weems biography of George Washington.

When Lincoln was twenty-one, the family moved to Illinois. The next year he got a job working on a flatboat carrying goods to New Orleans. The owner of the boat liked Lincoln and offered him a job as a clerk in a general store in New Salem, Illinois. He won the respect of the townspeople by fighting the town bully to a draw, and for his friendliness, honesty, and kindness to widows and children. He liked being a clerk because it game him much time to read . . . everything from the U.S. Constitution to *Macbeth*. After living in the town for a year, he campaigned for a seat in the Illinois general assembly, but lost. Then he entered the grocery business with a partner on borrowed money. The business went bankrupt because the partner drank too much and Lincoln was too busy studying law. It took fifteen years for Lincoln to pay off their creditors.

A second try for the Illinois general assembly in 1834 was successful. Mostly silent during his first legislative session, Lincoln rose thereafter to the leadership of the Whig Party, which was in the minority in the assembly. He advocated at this time that the vote be given to "all whites who pay taxes or bear arms," a radical suggestion in that it would have enfranchised females. His position on slavery was ambivalent; while calling it an injustice as well as bad policy, he argued that the federal government did not have the right to abolish slavery in any state. This was the view he maintained until halfway through his presidency.

Living in the state capital of Illinois gave Lincoln ready access to high society, and he met a well educated and charming young women named Mary Todd. After courting her for twelve months, their wedding date was set. But Lincoln, at the very last moment, decided he couldn't go through with the marriage. (According to some sources, he failed to turn up at the

altar.) Immediately thereafter, he suffered a severe nervous breakdown that incapacitated him for a year and a half. He and Mary were wed nearly two years after the original date. It is well known that he and Mary fought hard and bitterly, but remained united by their common love for their four children.

In 1846, Lincoln was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives by a large majority. Here he opposed the extension of slavery to U.S. territories, but also opposed federal interference with slavery in states where it already existed. He served only one term, then retired to private life for five years, making his living as a circuit lawyer. But the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854 rekindled Lincoln's interest in politics; this act, which opened up the entire area of the Louisiana Purchase to slavery, had been guided through Congress by Illinois Senator Stephen A. Douglas. Reaction in many parts of the U.S. was bitter, even violent, and a new political alliance, the Republican Party, was formed to oppose such extensions of slavery. Lincoln campaigned for the new party's presidential candidate throughout Illinois in 1856. The Republican candidate lost, but Lincoln increasingly gained fame in Illinois and beyond, especially because of the effectiveness with which he publicly countered the arguments of Senator Douglas. In 1858, the Illinois Republican Party named Lincoln to run against the Democrat Douglas for the Senate seat then held by Douglas. It was during his acceptance speech that Lincoln uttered the famous words, taken from the Bible: "A house divided against itself cannot stand." In the campaign debates between Lincoln and Douglas, Lincoln increased his national reputation. Although he won the popular vote, Douglas was re-elected to the Senate by the Illinois assembly (which in those days made the final decision about who would represent the state in the Senate).

During the next year, Lincoln was offered opportunities to speak all around the U.S. (except in the South), and did so. It was not surprising, then, that he became a leading contender for the Republican Party's presidential nomination at its 1860 convention. He won on the third ballot, and campaigned on a platform calling for non-interference in slave states and for exclusion of slavery from the territories. The Democratic Party split into three factions that year; each faction put forward a presidential candidate. Lincoln won handily, carrying all eighteen free states. But the elation of victory was overshadowed by a growing perception that war between the free and slave states was inevitable. Various compromise measures were proposed in Congress while the president-elect remained publicly silent. Behind the scenes, however, Lincoln vigorously opposed any compromise that would allow the extension of slavery. Even before Lincoln arrived in Washington for his inauguration, representatives from seven Southern states had formally proclaimed the Confederate States of America. In his inaugural address, Lincoln reaffirmed that he had no purpose to interfere with slavery in states where it already existed. He declared that the Union was inviolable, and promised to do his Constitutional duty to see that the laws were enforced throughout the entire nation.

Within six weeks of taking office, Confederate troops fired on Fort Sumter, located on an island near Charleston, South Carolina. The Civil War had begun. Lincoln called for volunteers to fight in the Union army and ordered a naval blockade of the South. Four more states seceded.

The war years were bitter ones for President Lincoln. Besides the sudden death of his eleven-year-old son, he had to contend with incompetent generals, massive casualties, Union reverses in the field, politically ambitious Cabinet members, and public attacks by those who demanded peace at any price as well as those who called for total war on *slavery*. Lincoln's position was that he was not fighting against slavery but rather for the preservation of the Union. When he finally issued the Emancipation Proclamation in January 1863, he did so primarily to weaken the ability of the South to continue to fight. Based on the assumption that the eleven states of the Confederacy continued to be *rightfully* (if not actually) under the rule of the U.S. government, the proclamation freed the slaves *only* in those areas still in open rebellion against the Union (*not* in Confederate areas occupied by Union forces, *not* in slave states that had not seceded). The proclamation thus accomplished little, except as a signal that the president was opposed to slavery as well as to secession. In July 1863, the Union forces turned back the relentless northward advance of the Confederate army at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. But the Union general disobeyed Lincoln's order to pursue the enemy, who temporarily could not escape due to a flooded river. Had the Confederates been pursued and captured, the terrible war probably would have ended then and there. In November of that year, Lincoln came to Gettysburg to help dedicate the cemetery for the fallen soldiers; here he gave his ten-sentence Gettysburg Address, perhaps the most famous speech in all U.S. history.

In 1864, Lincoln finally elevated a competent field general, Ulysses S. Grant, to commander-in-chief of the Union forces, and military victories followed. The Republican Party re-nominated him for president, and the improved news from the front lines helped him win a second term, though not by a large popular margin. Inaugurated in March 1865, Lincoln had to wait only one month to learn that the Confederate commander, Robert E. Lee, had surrendered to Grant. Neither Lincoln nor Grant wished to impose harshly punitive terms on the South. Lincoln even allowed new state governments to be formed when only ten percent of the electorate took an oath of loyalty to the Constitution, and hinted that the federal government might make millions of dollars available to compensate former slave owners.

But only five days after Lee's surrender, Lincoln was assassinated as he and his wife attended a play at Ford's Theater in Washington. His murderer leaped to the stage and cried, "*Sic semper tyrannis!* The South is avenged!" He was shot to death two weeks later by Union troops who were pursuing him, and his co-conspirators (who planned but failed to kill other top federal officials) were later hanged.

Abraham Lincoln was a key participant in the most divisive issue that has ever confronted the people of the United States. (The Civil War is by far the bloodiest conflict ever fought by the people of the United States.) Lincoln's direct involvement in national events was relatively brief (1858-1865), however, because his rise to national prominence was so rapid. Perhaps the most tragic aspect of the Lincoln story is that he was murdered just at the end of the Civil War, that is, just at the beginning of the "Reconstruction" era. It is widely believed that the work of re-integrating the eleven states of the Confederacy into the Union would have proceeded far more smoothly, and with far less rancor and vindictiveness, if Lincoln had been able to serve his second term as president.

Theodore Roosevelt and the Progressive Nation

Theodore Roosevelt is one of the most colorful figures in all of U.S. history. He was loaded with energy, interested in *and* skillful at a wide range of pursuits, and dedicated to social and political reform at a time when many of his eminent contemporaries were standpat conservatives. Most important for his record as a national leader, he was responsive to the new needs and conflicts of a people who were both expanding industrially and asserting themselves in world affairs. Roosevelt, an activist if nothing else, was a major force in shaping the presidency as we know it today.

"Teddy" Roosevelt was born in 1858 to a prosperous and cultivated New York City family of Dutch origins. His father was an importer of glass who was a friend of Abraham Lincoln; his mother was an aristocratic Georgian who remained loyal to the South during the Civil War. Teddy was very unhealthy as a baby, and remained so until he became an adolescent. He suffered greatly from asthma, and his eyesight was so poor that it made him awkward as a child. Because of these physical problems, his physical activities were severely restricted; he spent a great deal of time reading as a child, and was tutored at home. It was at this time that he cultivated his lifelong interest in natural science. It is said that his collection of live mice and reptiles kept the servants jumping. When he was thirteen, Roosevelt was in a remote town in Maine (where he had gone to help cure his asthma) when two local bullies made fun of his city manners. Teddy flew into a rage and attacked them with fists flying -- but they gave him a humiliating beating. He resolved at once to begin building up his strength, and started working out with barbells and a punching bag. This exercise not only accomplished his basic objective, but also seemed to cure his asthma. In addition, at about this time he got a pair of eyeglasses for the first time. He said, "I had no idea how beautiful the world was until I got those spectacles."

At age eighteen, Roosevelt entered Harvard University, where his intention was to study natural science. He studied diligently in spite of the fact that many of his classmates did not, and in his senior year began writing his first book, *The Naval War of 1812*. He was a member of the boxing team, and hobnobbed with Boston's Brahmins. In his junior year he spotted Alice Hathaway Lee, the daughter of a respected Boston family. "See that girl?" he said to a friend. "I am going to marry her. She won't have me, but I'm going to have her!" He married her on his twenty-second birthday, and they moved to New York City. Here Roosevelt entered Columbia Law School and discovered a distaste for the law. Not content with studying, he joined the Republican Club of the city's Twenty-first District in spite of the warning of family and friends that politics was run by society's lowest elements. He replied simply that he "intended to be one of the governing class." Within a year, he had been elected to represent the district in the New York State assembly. Here he served three terms, and voted for political reform measures while at the same time opposing most legislation intended to improve the lot of laboring people. However, after serving on a committee that visited New York City tenements in order to investigate the cigar industry, he became more favorable to labor legislation.

Roosevelt's political career was cut short by the deaths, on the same day in 1884, of both his mother and his wife. Roosevelt was at the bedside of each as they died. Soon afterwards, he headed west to the Dakota Territory, where he had already purchased a ranch. Here he lived for about two years as a hunter, rancher, outdoorsman, and writer, and loved every minute of it. People in the Dakota Territory often treated those who wore glasses as sub-human; in one instance, Roosevelt was accosted in a bar by a drunk holding two cocked pistols who said "Four eyes is going to treat." Roosevelt knocked him out.

Wiped out by the drought of 1886, Roosevelt returned to New York City and almost immediately became a candidate for mayor (because no prominent Republican would run). After coming in a poor third, he went to England to marry his childhood sweetheart, Edith Carow; together they toured the Continent, then returned to settle down at Sagamore Hill on Long Island. In 1888, Roosevelt was appointed a U.S. Civil Service Commissioner, a post of small consequence that he managed to use to come to national attention. He was reappointed a Commissioner by the following president even though the latter was a Democrat and Roosevelt was a Republican. In 1895, Roosevelt accepted appointment as Police Commissioner of New York City; at this time the force was riddled with corruption. He encountered so much opposition to his efforts to reform the force -- there even was a large protest parade by German-Americans who opposed his efforts to close saloons on Sundays -- that he was happy to accept appointment as Assistant Secretary of the Navy in 1897. During the absence of the Secretary for only one day in 1898, Roosevelt seized the opportunity to cable Admiral Dewey in the Pacific, ordering him to take action against the Spanish fleet in the event of a declaration of war against Spain. This act, though insubordinate, helped insure the great U.S. naval victory at Manila Bay.

When the U.S. battleship *Maine* mysteriously exploded while docked in Cuba, Roosevelt resigned his navy post and immediately began recruiting cowboys, Indians, policemen, and Ivy League athletes for service in the First U.S. Volunteer Cavalry Regiment, the famous "Rough Riders." This force fought only two engagements in Cuba, but Roosevelt's personal courage under fire was demonstrated, and he became a national hero. Roosevelt apparently believed that his leading of a cavalry charge was his life's supreme moment. Returning home, he ran for Governor of New York; he took seven Rough Riders with him during the campaign, and had a bugler blow "Charge!" before every speech. He won, but soon angered the Republican boss of New York State, Tom Platt, by paying no attention to what Platt wanted done. Thus, in 1900, Platt promoted Roosevelt for the vice presidency. "T.R.," as he was now known, did *not* wish to become vice president, knowing well that it was a powerless figurehead post. But he was so popular all around the country that he could not stop the movement to nominate him. William McKinley and Roosevelt were elected, and Roosevelt returned to Sagamore Hill for an extended vacation soon after taking office.

President McKinley was assassinated in September 1901, and T.R. became president at age 42. This was a time of great social and economic unrest in the U.S., for an ever increasing number of citizens were demanding an end to the heartless abuses of industrial capitalism. The "Progressives" included countless farmers and laborers as well as political reformers (such as Robert M. LaFollette and Eugene V. Debs) and muckraking journal-

ists (such as Upton Sinclair and Lincoln Steffens), all of whom decried foul working conditions, repeated economic depressions, declining value of wages, uncontrolled giant "trusts," and the coercion of powerful owners and managers. The Progressives now looked to T.R. to bring the weight of the presidency behind their cause. Roosevelt indicated his position in his first message to Congress. He adopted a moderate position, avoiding the old extreme of *laissez faire* (which had allowed the business magnates to do as they pleased) as well as the new one being proposed by the more radical Progressives: socialism. He said that he wished to eradicate the evils of the existing system while retaining its basic features, for trusts were not bad simply because they were big. Roosevelt saw his duty as president to protect the public from the unfair practices of the trusts, *and* to protect business from socialism.

Roosevelt's greatest challenge as president came in 1902 when the United Mine Workers struck for better wages and working conditions. The mine owners refused to make any sort of offer at all, and the strike continued throughout the summer and fall. T.R. greatly feared the impending scarcity of coal during the winter (the price rose from $2.40 to $35.00 a ton!) and the danger of widespread riots, but knew that the federal government had no authority to act. He used every means at his command to bring about arbitration, but the owners told him to his face to mind his own business. Roosevelt then formulated an extra-legal plan to have the U.S. Army seize and operate the mines; he let the details "leak" to the owners, who then agreed to arbitration. The miners returned to work immediately. Roosevelt's action was enormously significant because this was the first time that the federal government had *not* intervened on the side of business, but in favor of negotiation, which in practical terms meant that organized labor was informally recognized by the government, and that government would assert itself as a third force in strikes. T.R. referred to his approach to this crisis, as well as to many other issues involving business and labor, as the "Square Deal."

In spite of his personal popularity, Roosevelt could not be certain that the Republicans would re-nominate him in 1904. But he played himself as being interested primarily in *moderate* reform in order to prevent radicals (that is, socialists) from coming to power, and received the support of the biggest money men in the nation. Winning handily, he swung sharply leftward during his second term, instituting numerous "trust busting" actions against big business and supporting major items of legislation designed to regulate business and industry. When 1908 came, T.R. did *not* wish to be president for a third term. He engineered the nomination of his hand-picked successor, William H. Taft, and departed for a hunting safari in Africa within days of Taft's inauguration.

Greeted as a hero upon his return, Roosevelt found himself deeply displeased with Taft's performance and began speaking widely. His "New Nationalism" speech in Kansas showed how far he had moved to the left, and foreshadowed much that eventually would characterize social and economic life in the U.S. Unsuccessful at wresting the Republican nomination from Taft in 1912, T.R. ran as the candidate of the Progressive ("Bull Moose") Party, insuring the election of the Democrat, Woodrow Wilson. In 1914 he explored the Amazon River in Brazil, returning ill, injured, and very annoyed that he could not fight in World War One. He died in January 1919.

Franklin Roosevelt and the Nation in Economic Crisis

Franklin Delano Roosevelt served as president longer than anyone else has -- or will. He was a politician over whom people disagreed violently. To some he was a dictator, a Red, a destroyer of capitalism; to others (the majority) he was the champion of the poor and of labor, the friend of minorities, and the savior of capitalism. What everyone could agree about, however, was that "F.D.R." had an enormous impact on the presidency, on the people of the U.S., and on world history.

Franklin Roosevelt was born in 1882 at Hyde Park, in New York State's Dutchess County. He was the only child of a gentleman farmer of Dutch descent who had substantial interests in coal, shipping, and railroads. His mother, of Flemish descent, was young and independently wealthy, and is said to have smothered Franklin in dictatorial love. The family was Democratic in politics in spite of being distant cousins of T.R., whom Franklin called "Uncle Theodore." As a boy, Franklin let a secure life full of the perquisites of monied aristocracy: governesses, private tutors, dancing school, hunting, sailing, and riding his own pony. At fourteen, Franklin entered the Groton School in Massachusetts, at that time the nation's most elite prep school. Run by a strict clergyman, the school's moral curriculum emphasized the responsibility of the wealthy to aid the less fortunate. Franklin was an average student but was excluded from his classmates' well established cliques because he had arrived some years after most of them. He sang in the choir, managed the baseball team, won the Latin prize, participated in debate, and was described by a classmate as "nice, but colorless." In 1900, Franklin entered Harvard University, where he majored in political history and government, maintained a "gentleman C" average, and obtained his B.A. in three years. He served as editor of the student newspaper, *The Crimson*, but was keenly disappointed not to have been elected to Harvard's most prestigious social club (Porcellian). When his father died during this time, his mother immediately moved to rooms near the Harvard campus so she could supervise his development more closely. But in spite of her determined opposition, she could not prevent him from marrying a distant cousin, Eleanor Roosevelt, in 1905. T.R. gave the bride away.

Shortly before his marriage, Franklin enrolled in Columbia University Law School. He passed the bar exam before completing his coursework, so never bothered to complete the degree. He then spent about three years working in New York City as a lawyer, commuting on weekends to Hyde Park and on holidays to the massive Roosevelt "cottage" on Campobello Island off the coast of Maine. In 1910, when he was 28, leading Democrats persuaded him to run for a seat in the state senate, representing three upstate counties (including Dutchess). Elected by a thin margin, Franklin immediately led a fight in the legislature against the incompetent nominee of the party bosses for U.S. Senate, won, and gained wide attention in the press as a consequence. Although he won a second term in 1912, he found himself in Washington at the end of that year as Assistant Secretary of the Navy because he had worked hard for Woodrow Wilson's nomination at the Democratic Convention. In Washington, he began making contacts and gaining political and executive experience that would serve him well later. He remained in this post throughout World War One, and is credited with the idea of mining the North Sea in such a way that Allied shipping was effectively protected from German submarines. He is also credited with borrowing a destroyer for

a private visit to Campobello Island. In 1920, having just resigned his Navy post, Roosevelt was nominated by the Democratic Convention for vice president, running with James M. Cox of Ohio. The two of them campaigned largely on the position that the U.S. should enter the League of Nations, but they were slaughtered at the polls by Warren G. Harding's "Return to Normalcy." Roosevelt returned to private law practice, then accepted a position as vice president of a bank in Maryland.

In August 1921, while yatching off Campobello, Franklin fell into the icy waters. The very next day, while sailing, he beached his boat to fight a small forest fire, then refreshed himself by plunging into the same frigid waters. Returning home, he sat reading for a while in his wet bathing suit, then went to bed complaining of pains. The next day he awoke to find himself paralyzed from the chest down. At 39, the vigorous F.D.R. had been struck by polio (infantile paralysis). He was totally crippled and in excruciating pain at first, but within a few months he regained movement in his chest and back. He began a series of exercises that soon built his chest and arm juscles to prodigious strength, and got around thereafter in a wheelchair, or with canes and painful braces, or in a manually operated automobile. Until 1928, Roosevelt's main occupation in life was trying to regain his ability to walk. He finally discovered the 88-degree mineral waters of Warm Springs, Georgia, where he could exercise by swimming; Warm Springs was a seedy resort when he found it, so he bought it and turned it into a modern hydrotherapeutic center. Throughout the rest of his life he went there often, for he never regained the use of his legs. It is said that his fight against polio gave Roosevelt a personal depth and sense of compassion he could have gained in no other way.

In 1928, the New York State Democratic Convention nominated Roosevelt for governor even though he had stated flatly that he wasn't interested. He won the election in spite of a Republican whispering campaign suggesting that his "unfortunate" condition made him unfit for office. As governor, F.D.R. soon had to cope with the effects of the Great Depression, which began with the dramatic "crash" of the stock market in October 1929. Faced with a Republican legislature, he found it difficult to enact measures for coping with the crisis, but he was able to set up the first unemployment relief agency of any of the 48 states. He declared that "the duty of the state toward its citizens is the duty of the servant to his master," and that one of government's central duties was "caring for those citizens who find themselves victims of adverse circumstances . . . ." Roosevelt was elected to a second term as governor in 1930 by the largest majority in the state's history, and instantly became a front-runner for the Democratic nomination for the presidency in 1932.

It was clear in 1932 that Herbert Hoover, who had done very little as president to stem the misery of the Great Depression, had almost no chance of being re-elected. The fight for the Democratic nomination was therefore the major political drama of that year, and F.D.R. won it on the fourth ballot. Defying those who thought the invalid should conduct a confident "front-porch campaign," Roosevelt visited 41 states and traveled 27,000 miles. Deploring the collapse of equality of opportunity, he said in one of his speeches that "I do not believe that in the name of that sacred word *individualism* a few powerful interests should be permitted to make industrial cannon-fodder of the lives of half the population of the U.S." In spite of Hoover's thinly veiled charge that Roosevelt was embracing commun-

ism, he won all but six states. In the four months between the election and the inauguration, the economic condition of the country deepened rapidly: fifteen million people were unemployed, midwestern farmers were fighting foreclosures with force, "Hooverville" were a common sight in cities, the index of production dropped from 64 to 56, and runs on banks were so common that more than a dozen governors had ordered them closed. Roosevelt's inaugural address, coming at such a bleak moment in the life of the nation, was a stirring call to action for the federal government, and included the now-famous phrase that "the only thing we have to fear is fear itself . . . ."

Before going to bed on the day he was inaugurated, Roosevelt proclaimed a four-day bank holiday all across the nation in order to give him time to prepare legislation to deal with the impending panic, and he called a special session of Congress to meet a few days later. That session of Congress lasted exactly 100 days and found members of both parties, under F.D.R.'s tireless leadership, working in unity to create a package of legislation that began the economic revolution known as the "New Deal." The first piece of legislation, the Emergency Banking Relief Act, was enacted on the very first day of that session: 38 minutes in the House, three hours in the Senate, signed by F.D.R. the same evening. Banks all around the nation opened their doors a few days later, and the disastrous runs ceased. A dizying succession of acts followed, far too many to name here; many were passed during the first hundred days, some in legislative sessions that came later during Roosevelt's first term. Historians have summarized the purpose of this deluge of legislation by pointing to its underlying purposes: *recovery* of business, agricultural, and financial activity, and *relief* for the millions of citizens who were unemployed as a result of the Depression. When these two goals seemed more or less in hand (sometime during 1935), Roosevelt and Congress turned their attention to a third objective: *reform* of the socio-economic system so as to insure that a Great Depression did not re-occur in the future. Perhaps the most important piece of legislation passed during F.D.R.'s first term was the Social Security Act (August 1935), which provided for old-age retirement benefits, finaicial assistance for temporarily unemployed workers, and aid for the blind, the needy, dependent mothers, and neglected children. For the first time, the federal government of the U.S. accepted direct responsibility for protecting its citizens from the hazards of life in a modern industrial society.

Re-nominated by the Democrats by acclamation in 1936, Roosevelt carried every state except Maine and Vermont. Although the country was clearly in better economic condition than when he was first inaugurated, F.D.R. could lament in his 1937 inaugural address that "I see one-third of a nation ill-housed, ill-clad, ill-nourished . . . ." Ready to continue with more New Deal-type legislation, Roosevelt was stopped short when the Supreme Court unanimously declared unconstitutional one of the major measures of the first hundred days, the National Industrial Recovery Act. Later, several other key acts also were disallowed by the Court. Angered, Roosevelt quickly proposed to Congress a plan that would have allowed him to "pack" the federal courts with additional justices and judges. This proposal, though defeated by Congress, was Roosevelt's poorest performance as president, for it seemed to justify the criticism of arch-conservatives that he was a conniving despot. Even Roosevelt's liberal supporters were embarrassed by his clumsy effort to gain political control of the court system, the independence of which is considered sacred by many U.S. citi-

zens. In the mid-term (Congressional) elections the following year, the Republicans made impressive gains in both Houses of Congress.

By this time, events in Europe were beginning to attract more and more attention in the United States. But a strong isolationist sentiment in the country was able to prevent any strong U.S. response to outrages such as Hitler's taking of the Rhineland in 1936. Roosevelt apparently foresaw the worst; in a 1937 speech he warned, "Let no one imaging that America will escape," and he asked Congress for money to strengthen the nation's defenses in January 1939. Even after Hitler invaded Poland, public opinion in the U.S. was 77% opposed to involvement in the war. Meanwhile, Roosevelt faced another contest -- his precedent-shattering attempt to be elected to a third term in 1940. His own party was split over whether he should run again, but he was re-nominated and won the election with slogans such as "Better a third termer than a third rater!" By this time, Roosevelt and most U.S. citizens were preoccupied with the European war and with attempts to stay out of it . . . as well as preparations should the U.S. be drawn in. The Depression became a thing of the past as the military draft was instituted and more and more war-related industries geared up, putting almost everyone back to work. And war did come to the U.S., on December 7, 1941, "a day that will live in infamy."

Roosevelt went on to win a fourth term in 1944, in the midst of the war years, in spite of increasingly precarious health as a consequence of the strain of war leadership. His 1945 inaugural address address was brief. On his way to a reception immediately afterwards, he collapsed in his son's arms. Three months later, while resting at Warm Springs, he died suddenly of a cerebral hemorrhage. It is said that millions of people in the United States reacted as though they had lost their own father.

In domestic politics, Roosevelt had been (in his own words) "a little left of center." He used liberal means to preserve essentially conservative ends; that is, he urge increased government interference in the economy in order to maintain a basically capitalist, "free enterprise" system and forestall revolution. F.D.R. was an experimenter, an improvisor, a pragmatist, a practitioner of trial-and-error problem-solving methods. He had no coherent underlying economic philosophy. He attempted to deal with problems by any means that seemed reasonable and appeared workable. In the end, the heap of New Deal legislation did *not* completely cure the Depression; the Second World War did that. What may have been every bit as valuable for the people of the United States as all that legislation was the *personal style* of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, for, until well into the war years, he was possessed of a boyant self-confidence that inspired optimism and trust.

Lyndon Baines Johnson and the Crises of the Sixties

Lyndon Baines Johnson, the son of a small farmer, came to the presidency with more relevant experience for the job than Washington, Lincoln, or either of the two Roosevelts. At the center of national politics from the mid-1930s until almost 1970, he was one of the ablest craftsmen of government in modern U.S. history. He is chiefly remembered as the Southerner who was largely responsible for securing federal legal guarantees for the rights of Blacks and other minorities, and as the president whose plans for a "Great Society" were undermined by the national anguish over the war in Vietnam.

Lyndon Johnson was born in Texas in 1908, in the dry, rocky, southwest hill country where farming was difficult and chancy. An interest in politics ran on both sides of his family -- one of his ancestors had been governor of Kentucky, and others, including his father, served in the Texas legislature -- but the main occupation of the family was farming. His early life was not secure, for that area of Texas had been hard hit by an agricultural depression in the 1920s. As a teenager, Lyndon did odd jobs for pocket money: picking cotton, shining shoes, passing out handbills, washing dishes, waiting on tables, working on the road gang. In 1927, he entered Southwest Texas State Teachers College; earning his B.S. in three years, he helped support himself by teaching Mexican-American children. Decades later, in his presidential Address on Voting Rights before the U.S. Congress, Johnson recalled this experience:

> My first job after college was as a teacher in Cotulla, Texas, in a small Mexican-American school. Few of them could speak English and I couldn't speak much Spanish. My students were poor and they often came to class without breakfast, hungry, and they knew even in their youth that pain of prejudice. They never seemed to know why people disliked them. But they knew it was so. Because I saw it in their eyes. I often walked home late in the afternoon after the classes were finished, whiching there was more that I could do. . . . I never thought then in 1928 that I would be standing here in 1965. It never even occurred to me in my fondest dreams that I might have the chance to help the sons and daughters of those students and to help people like them all over the country. But now I do have that chance and I . . . mean to use it.

A year after graduating, Lyndon campaigned actively for a wealthy conservative Texan who was running for the House of Representatives, and accompanied him to Washington as his secretary. There he found a second mentor, Congressman Sam Rayburn, a friend of his father and an increasingly powerful force on Capitol Hill. During these four years, he married Claudia "Lady Bird" Taylor, daughter of a wealthy eastern Texas landowner. In 1935 he was appointed to head one of F.D.R.'s New Deal agencies in Texas, the National Youth Administration. This enabled Lyndon to become better known throughout the state, and when a congressional seat became vacant in 1937, he won it is an campaign favoring all aspects of the New Deal. The day after his election victory, Johnson met F.D.R. (who happened to be traveling across Texas), and was able to talk with him at length. From then on, he was an F.D.R. protégé. At this time he was 28 years old. He was re-elected to the House in 1938 and several times thereafter; but he failed narrowly in his first bid for the Senate in 1941, after which he tried to sound more

conservative in order to appeal to the powerful oil interests in his state. When the U.S. entered World War Two, Johnson went to Australia on a special assignment for Roosevelt and almost lost his life in an aircraft attached by Japanese fighters. After the war, he opposed the rapid dismantling of U.S. military forces.

In 1948, Johnson made a second bid for the U.S. Senate. His real fight was in the Democratic primary campaign, during which time he opposed President Truman's civil rights program and defended his House vote against the repeal of the poll tax (saying he'd been defending "states' rights"). He came in second in the eleven-candidate primary, then inched ahead of his opponent in the run-off by only 87 votes. But he beat his Republican opponent in the election by a 2-to-1 margin. In the U.S. Senate, he took a particular interest in military preparedness. After only four years as a senator, Johnson was chosen Minority Leader by his fellow Democrats. When the Democrats regained control of the Senate in 1954 (at which time Johnson was easily re-elected), he became, at 46, the Senate Majority Leader and one of the central figures in national politics. His leadership of the Senate is legendary, for he adopted a bi-partisan approach to many items of legislation proposed by the Republican president, Dwight Eisenhower, and he acquired a reputation as a master of political accommodation who possessed a relentless and overpowering persuasiveness. In 1957 and 1960, he guided to passage the first civil rights bills in the national legislature since Reconstruction.

In 1960, Johnson's admirers promoted him as the Democratic nominee for the presidency, but Johnson himself stayed out to the primaries. Senator John F. Kennedy, younger and more attractive, won the nomination in spite of Johnson's public criticism of his lack of experience. Then, surprisingly, Kennedy offered the vice presidential nomination to Johnson as a was of balancing the ticket between North and South. They won by a very small margin. In November 1963, when Kennedy was assassinated, Johnson took the oath of office as president on board *Air Force One* while it was parked at the airport in Dallas, Texas. In his first address to Congress a few days later, Johnson declared that "No memorial oration or eulogy could more eloquently honor President Kennedy's memory than the earliest possible passage of the civil rights bill for which he fought so long." Johnson's consummate skill as a legislative chieftain paid off in the following months; bills proposed by himself, or originally by Kennedy, began to roll out of Congress; these included liberal measures such as the food stamp plan for providing food to the poor, the Job Corps for training and employing youth at federal expense, and the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which dealt with public accommodations and fair employment practices.

In the presidential campaign of 1964, Johnson (and vice presidential nominee Hubert Humphrey, one of the most popular and liberal members of the Senate) faced Republican and arch-conservative Barry Goldwater. This was perhaps the clearest left-vs.-right choice for the presidency ever presented to the voters of the nation; Johnson won by the largest popular margin in U.S. history. When he accepted the Democratic nomination, Johnson had said, "This nation, this generation, in this hour has man's first chance to build a great society, a place where the meaning of man's life matches the marvel of man's labor." His domestic program thereafter was known as the "Great Society," and included massive financial aid to elementary and secondary schools, medical assistance to citizens over age 65

(through Medicare), federal aid to poverty-stricken areas in Appalachia, aid to housing and the creation of the Department of Housing and Urban Development. Johnson's supreme achievement was the Voting Rights Act of 1965. His speech to Congress on this measure, made only days after civil rights advocates had been brutally attached in Selma, Alabama, was the most effective of his career. In 1967, Johnson appointed the first Black (Thurgood Marshall) to the Supreme Court. Later that year, however, huge riots broke out in major U.S. cities, fueled by Blacks who continued to feel the sting of discrimination in their day-to-day lives.

Johnson's most vexing problem was the situation in Vietnam. The story of U.S. involvement in Southeast Asia goes back to 1950, and cannot be retold here. When Johnson suddenly became president in 1963, there were 25,000 U.S. military advisors in Vietnam; Johnson maintained at first that the people of South Vietnam had to do the actual fighting on their own. (This had been Kennedy's position, too.) But in August 1964, ships of the U.S. Navy were fired on in the Gulf of Tonkin, off Vietnam, and Johnson immediately got from Congress a resolution authorizing the president to "take all necessary measures to . . . prevent further aggression." Johnson committed U.S. troops to battle, and the rising number of U.S. dead tells the story: 146 in 1964, 1,104 in 1965, 5,008 in 1966, and 9,353 in 1967. As U.S. involvement (including the bombing of civilian centers in North Vietnam) escalated, so did protests within the U.S. These protests were not only by college kids and leftist radicals, but also by an ever-growing tide of distinguished citizens from all walks of life. As more and more political leaders also decried the war that seemingly couldn't be won (yet at a cost of more than 150 dead U.S. soldiers each *week*), and as more and more of Johnson's Great Society programs were slashed to pay for the war, the political climate in the U.S. became as severely polarized as at any time since the Civil War. With massive criticism focused on him as the commander-in-chief, Johnson announced in March 1968 that he would not seek re-election. After leaving the presidency in January 1969, he retired to his ranch in Texas, where he died in January 1973.

Johnson's legacy can still be felt in the U.S. of the early 1980s, for some of our most vexing political issues continue to be of the "guns or butter" variety. Even though the Vietnam conflict is over, the fact that it occurred at all is still a matter of concern and embarrassment for some U.S. citizens. The costs of military preparedness escalate steadily, drawing funds away from domestic programs, some of which were started during the presidency of Johnson, and some as far back as Franklin Roosevelt. Finally, in spite of the various civil rights measures passed under Johnson's leadership, discrimination and equal opportunity (nowadays with *women* a particular focus) continue to be political and moral issues in the United States. In some ways, Johnson's presidency was a harbinger of things to come . . . .

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[1] Most of the information in this background paper is derived from Leish, Kenneth W. (Ed.), *The American Heritage Pictorial History of the Presidents of the United States* (Vol. I and Vol. II), American Heritage Publishing Co. (n.p.), 1968, pp. 11-62, 381-428, 623-660, 787-850, and 969-1005.

Important note to the group leader regarding Unit V:

As originally designed for use by AFS International, Unit V made use of selected slides (designated as F10, B13, H42, and so forth) from the following commercially distributed slide collection:

Smock, Raymond W., Stowe, William M., Jr., & Daniel, Peter.

The American History Slide Collection.

Instructional Resources Corporation: Laurel, Maryland, 1977.

Obviously, if this collection can be obtained, the task of preparing this unit will be greatly facilitated. However, if this collection is not available, other slides from other collections could be used. In this case, however, many of the descriptive statements might have to be re-written to be appropriate for the slides that are available.

Excerpt from George Washington's "Fairwell Address" (September 1796)

The great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations is, in extending our commercial relations to have with them as little *political* connection as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith. Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests which to us have none or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves by artificial ties in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality we may at any time resolve upon to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humor, or caprice?

It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world, so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronizing infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But in my opinion it is unnecessary and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves by suitable establishments on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

The "Gettysburg Address" of Abraham Lincoln (November 1863)

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth, on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived, and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives, that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate -- we cannot consecrate -- we cannot hallow -- this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us -- that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they here gave the last full measure of devotion -- that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain -- that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom -- and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

Excerpts from Theodore Roosevelt's "New Nationalism" Address (August 1910)

In every wise struggle for human betterment one of the main objects, and often the only object, has been to achieve in large measure equality of opportunity. In the struggle for this great end, nations rise from barbarism to civilization, and through it people press forward from one stage of enlightenment to the next. One of the chief factors in progress is the destruction of special privilege. The essence of any struggle for healthy liberty has always been, and must always be, to take from some one man or class of men the right to enjoy power, or wealth, or position, or immunity, which has not been earned by service to his or their fellows. That is what you fought for in the Civil War, and that is what we strive for now.

At many stages in the advance of humanity, this conflict between the men who possess more than they have earned and the men who have earned more than they possess is the central condition of progress. In our day it appears as the struggle of freemen to gain and hold the right of self-government as against the special interests, who twist the methods of free government into machinery for defeating the popular will. At every stage, and under all circumstances, the essence of the struggle is to equalize opportunity, destroy privilege, and give to the life and citizenship of every individual the highest possible value both to himself and to the commonwealth.

We are face to face with new conceptions of the relations of property to human welfare. The man who wrongly holds that every human right is secondary to his profit must now give way to the advocate of human welfare, who rightly maintains that every man holds his property subject to the general right of the community to regulate its use to whatever degree the public welfare may require it.

The betterment which we seek must be accomplished, I believe, mainly through the national government. The New Nationalism puts the national need before sectional or personal advantage. The New Nationalism regards the executive power as the steward of the public welfare. It demands of the judiciary that it shall be interested primarily in human welfare rather than in property.

Opening and Closing Paragraphs from

Franklin Roosevelt's First Inaugural Address (March 1933)

This is a day of national consecration.

I am certain that my fellow Americans expect that on my induction into the Presidency I will address them with a candor and a decision which the present situation of our Nation impels. This is pre-eminently the time to speak the truth, the whole truth, frankly and boldly. Nor need we shrink from honestly facing conditions in our country today. This great Nation will endure as it has endured, will revive and will prosper. So, first of all, let me assert my firm belief that the only thing we have to fear is fear itself -- nameless, unreasoning, unjustified terror which paralyzes needed efforts to convert retreat into advance. In every dark hour of our national life a leadership of frankness and vigor has met with that understanding and support of the people themselves which is essential to victory. I am convinced that you will again give that support to leadership in these critical days.

* * * * * * *

We face the arduous days that lie before us in the warm courage of national unity; with the clear consciousness of seeking old and precious moral values; with the clean satisfaction that comes from the stern performance of duty by old and young alike. We aim at the assurance of a rounded and permanent national life.

We do not distrust the future of essential democracy. The people of the United States have not failed. In their need they have registered a mandate that they want direct, vigorous action. They have asked for discipline and direction under leadership. They have made me the present instrument of their wishes. In the spirit of the gift I take it.

In this dedication of a Nation we humbly ask the blessing of God. May He protect each and every one of us. May He guide me in the days to come.

Excerpts from Lyndon Johnson's Address on Voting Rights (March 1965)

Mr. Speaker, Mr. President, Members of the Congress:

I speak tonight for the dignity of man and the destiny of democracy. I urge every member of both parties, Americans of all religions and of all colors, from every section of this country, to join me in that cause.

At times history and fate meet at a single time in a single place to shape a turning point in man's unending search for freedom. So it was at Lexington and Concord. So it was a century ago at Appomattox. So it was last week in Selma, Alabama.

There, long-suffering men and women peacefully protested the denial of their rights as Americans. Many were brutally assaulted. One good man, a man of God, was killed.

There is no cause for pride in what has happened in Selma. There is no cause for self-satisfaction in the long denial of equal rights for millions of Americans.

But there is cause for hope and for faith in our democracy in what is happening here tonight.

For the cries of pain and the hymns and protests of oppressed people have summoned into communication all the majesty of this great government of the greatest nation on earth.

Our mission is at once the oldest and the most basic of this country: to right wrong, to do justice, to serve man.

In our time we have come to live with the moments of great crisis. Our lives have been marked with debate about great issues, issues of war and peace, issues of prosperity and depression. But rarely in any time does an issue lay bare the secret heart of America itself. Rarely are we met with a challenge, not to our growth or abundance, or our welfare or our security, but rather to the values and the purposes and the meaning of our beloved nation.

The issue of equal rights for American Negroes is such an issue. And should we defeat every enemy, and should we double our wealth and conquer the stars and still be unequal to this issue, then we will have failed as a people and as a nation.

As a man whose roots go deeply into Southern soil I know how agonizing racial feelings are. I know how difficult it is to reshape the attitudes and the structure of our society.

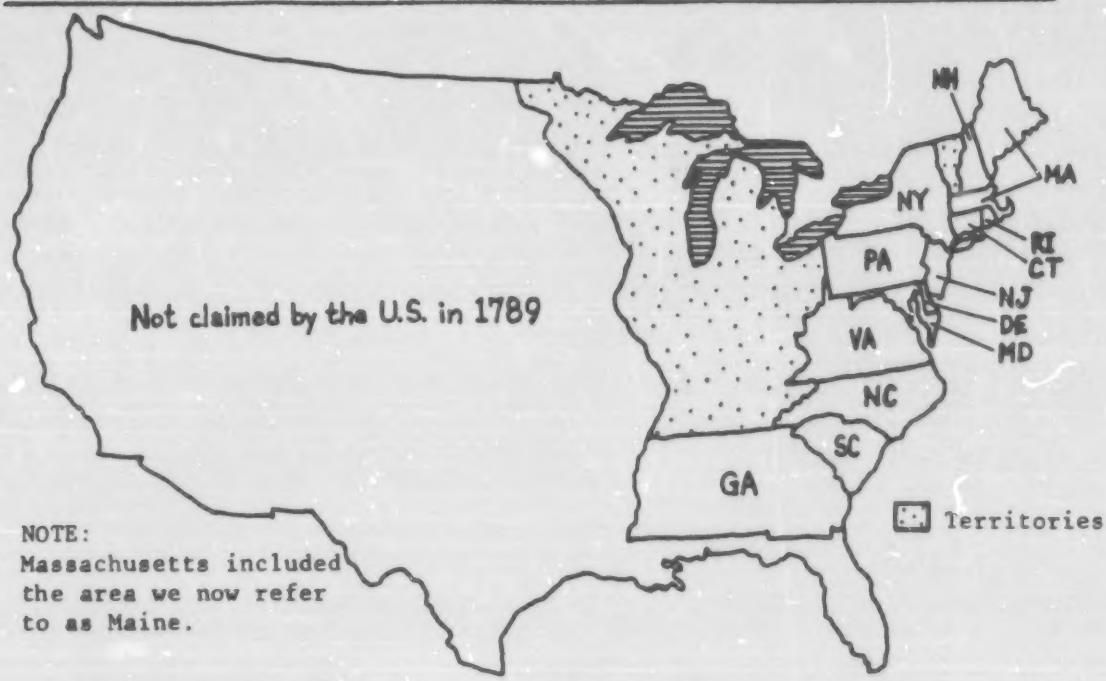
But a century has passed, more than a hundred years, since the Negro was freed. And he is not fully free tonight.

It was more than a hundred years ago that Abraham Lincoln, the great President of the Northern party, signed the Emancipation Proclamation, but emancipation is a proclamation and not a fact.

A century has passed, more than a hundred years, since equality was promised. And yet the Negro is not equal.

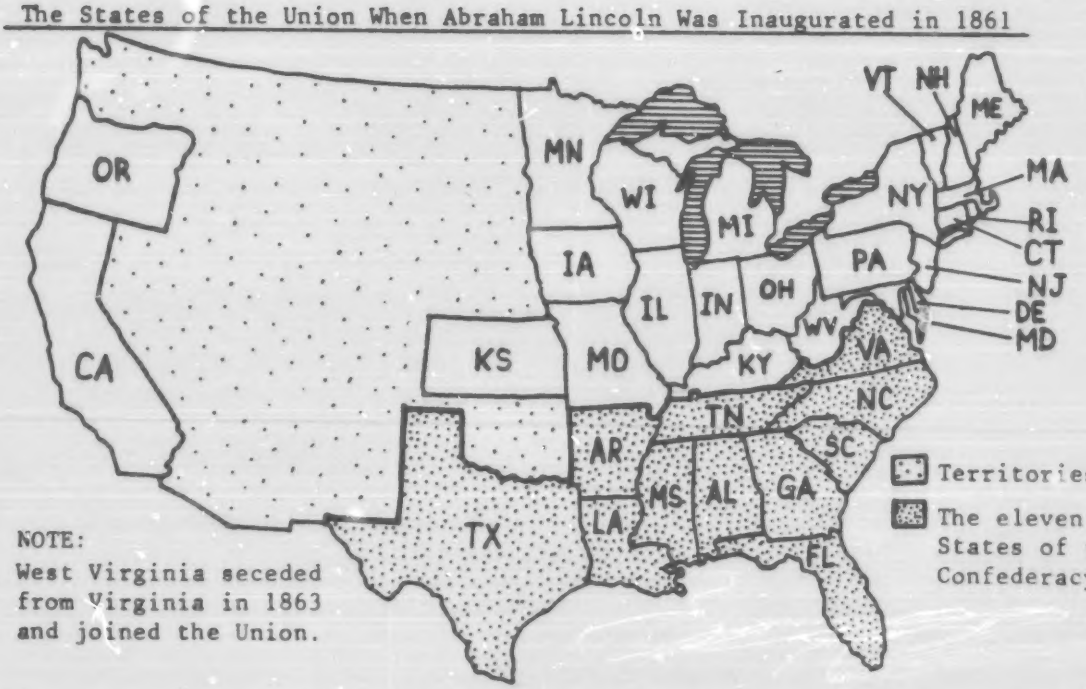
The time of justice has now come. I tell you that I believe sincerely that no force can hold it back. It is right in the eyes of man and God that it should come. And when it does, I think that day will brighten the lives of every American.

The States of the Union When George Washington Was Inaugurated in 1789



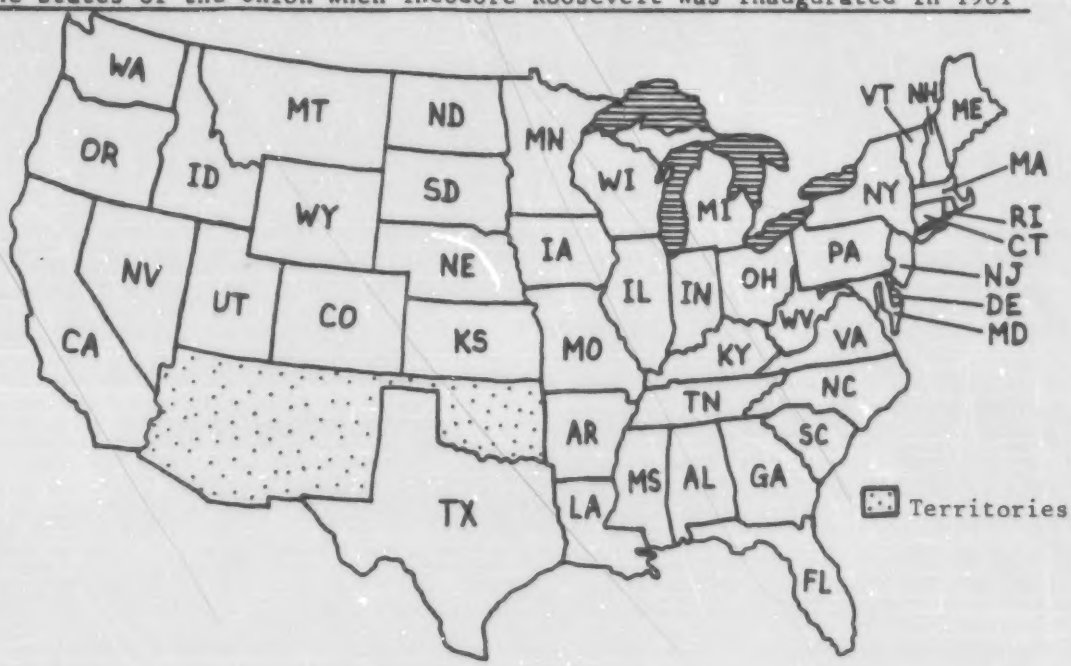
NOTE:
Massachusetts included the area we now refer to as Maine.

The States of the Union When Abraham Lincoln Was Inaugurated in 1861

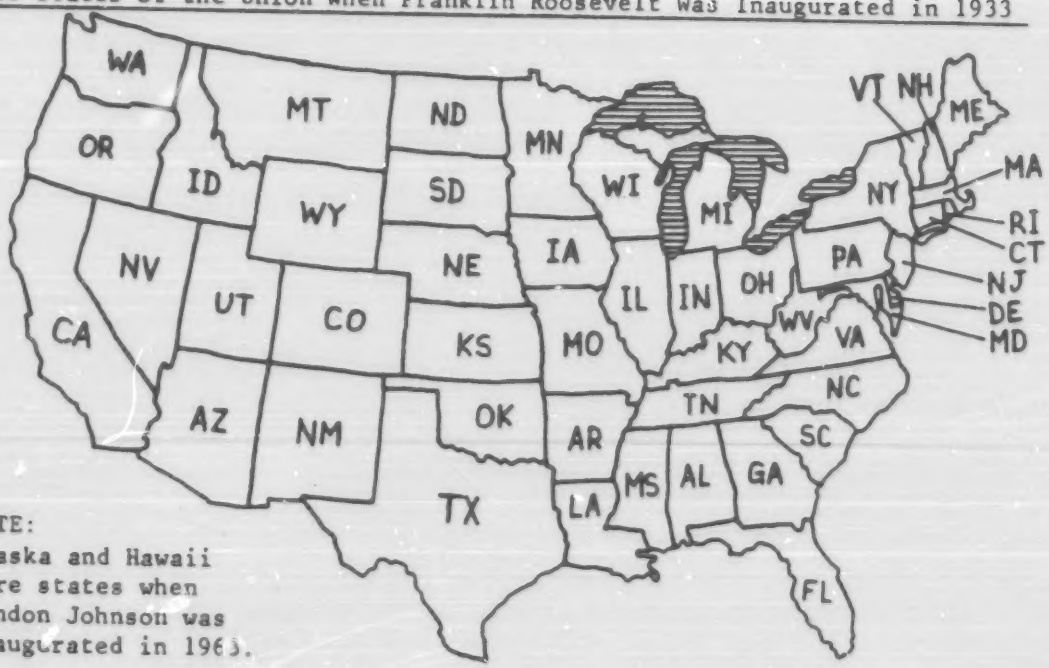


NOTE:
West Virginia seceded from Virginia in 1863 and joined the Union.

The States of the Union When Theodore Roosevelt Was Inaugurated in 1901



The States of the Union When Franklin Roosevelt Was Inaugurated in 1933



NOTE:
Alaska and Hawaii were states when Lyndon Johnson was inaugurated in 1963.

Homestay Program Orientation

VALUES OF U.S. PEOPLE: FOCUS ON PROVERBS AND EXPRESSIONS

Leader's Guide

Objectives:

1. To provide the students with some insight into a few of the traits and values that are characteristic of people in the mainstream of U.S. culture.
2. To introduce the students to a number of the proverbs and expressions that are well known in the U.S., and to explain their meanings in relation to certain traits and values common in the U.S.

Students' Materials: *Homestay Program Orientation Manual* (one per student)

Leader's Materials: For preparatory reading, see *Six Key Values and Characteristic Traits of People in the U.S.*, included herein. It is assumed that the Leader has an insider's knowledge of U.S. culture and is familiar with most or all of the proverbs and expressions discussed in this session.

Time Required: Approximately two hours, structured as follows:

20 minutes: Part I - Pragmatism
20 minutes: Part II - Assertiveness
20 minutes: Part III - Friendliness
20 minutes: Part IV - Time Consciousness
20 minutes: Part V - Restlessness
20 minutes: Part VI - Optimism

Discussion: The twenty-minute time limitation on each of the six topics should not be treated too rigidly. A lively discussion about one of the topics should not be prematurely cut off merely to insure that all six topics can be dealt with in the two hours. The Leader should try to arrange things so that *at least four* of the topics are covered. Note also that it is *not* absolutely necessary that every proverb and expression listed under each heading be discussed. In short, our suggestion to the Leader with respect to this session is succinctly stated in a modern U.S. expression: *Go with the flow.*

PART I -- PRAGMATISM

Point 1: *A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.* The pragmatic approach to life places far more value on what is fully operational in the here and now (the bird already in hand) than on what is theoretically possible of attainment in the future (the two birds still free in the bush).

Point 2: *There's more than one way to skin a cat.* The pragmatist is not bound by rules or tradition, but is flexible and inventive; he seeks the most efficient and effective way to accomplish a task with whatever is at hand. If skinning a cat in a certain manner isn't sufficiently productive, he'll figure out another, better way to do it.

Point 3: *God helps those who help themselves.* The pragmatist does not necessarily rule out the possibility of divine intervention on his behalf, but he doesn't wait around for it, either. He assumes that divine intervention, if any, occurs on behalf of those who get down to work.

Point 4: *If you can't lick 'em, join 'em.* This piece of advice shows the flexibility of the pragmatist in its most extreme form. The people who prevail are the people who get things done; if one needs to change one's beliefs or affiliations in order to be on the side of progress and efficiency, so be it.

Point 5: *Don't build castles in the sky.* The pragmatist views daydreaming as a waste of time. Only things that actually *work* have value. Grandiose but unrealistic schemes (such as for building castles) are useless.

Point 6: *No use crying over spilt milk.* It is unfortunate to spill milk because it's a waste of resources. However, since the milk cannot be recovered for further use, bemoaning its loss merely wastes time and serves no useful purpose. Better to clean up the mess and get on with life, dry-eyed.

Point 7: *Leave well enough alone.* What appeals to the pragmatist are things that *work*; perfection is nice, but not necessary. When something works well enough for one's purposes, there is little point in trying to make it work better. After all, further tinkering may cause one to foul it up.

Point 8: *Don't bite the hand that feeds you.* Being fed, that is, receiving any of life's necessities, is supremely practical and useful. The pragmatist doesn't ask too many embarrassing questions about the source of his sustenance because he may suddenly find his supply cut off. In other words, this expression counsels that one should not let theoretical niceties get in the way of practical requirements.

Point 6: *Don't beat around the bush.* In conversation or writing, it is acceptable to move quickly and directly to the essential issue (to the center of the bush, so to speak). It is not always a good idea to try to embellish a story with extraneous anecdotes, nor to try to indirectly suggest your meaning in order to preserve appearances or the feelings of others.

Point 7: *Give it to 'em straight from the shoulder.* If you want to criticize or argue with anyone, the best way to do so is directly, face-to-face, and as plainly as possible. The image in this expression is that of giving someone a punch in the face, which is most devastating when delivered straight out from one's shoulder. Note, however, that people in the U.S. do *not* criticize or argue with each other at the drop of a hat. When they *do* do so, they are most likely to do it straightforwardly.

Point 8: *Stick to your guns.* The assertive individual is tenacious and courageous in defending his opinions and beliefs in the face of opposing points of view. Like a soldier under attack, he stays at this position and continues firing his weapon as the enemy advances.

PART III -- FRIENDLINESS

Point 1: *Make yourself at home.* This expression is frequently heard when a guest arrives in someone's house. It is an invitation to the guest to dispense with ceremony and formality, and to act more or less as though he is in his own home and among friends. Typically, a guest in a certain house for the first time will be given a tour of the entire building; this is in large measure to insure that the guest is *able* to treat the house as though it were his own.

Point 2: *Don't stand on ceremony.* The essence of friendliness in the U.S. is the absence of formality or "ceremony." People who act in a ceremonial fashion are perceived as cool, guarded, and distant, whereas the friendly person is believed to be -- virtually from the moment of first encounter -- warm, open, and (at least superficially) intimate.

Point 3: *Let your hair down.* The image here is of a woman who has had her hair arranged on top of her head (signifying some degree of formality and reserve) unpinning it and letting it fall down around her shoulders (signifying informality and openness). The person who "lets his hair down" engages in a great deal of self-disclosure. Friendliness in the U.S. entails a comparatively high degree of self-disclosure, even on short acquaintance.

Point 9: *Build a better mousetrap, and the world will beat a pathway to your door.* The pragmatist may not be a perfectionist, but he does know and value anything that does a job better than the way it used to be done. More efficiency and effectiveness is always to be sought after, even in so lowly a device as a mousetrap. In a pragmatic society, the builder of any sort of improved device can expect to be sought out by potential users.

PART II -- ASSERTIVENESS

Point 1: *The squeaky wheel gets the grease.* The person who loudly complains or openly states his objections (the "squeaky wheel") is the one who is attended to and who is the cause of changes being made. Those who do not assert themselves forcefully and openly cannot expect to get any attention to their wishes or complaints.

Point 2: *Stand up and be counted.* It is acceptable in a democratic society to make known one's opinion on various issues (that is, to be counted on one side or another of an issue). Asserting oneself in this way is positively recommended.

Point 3: *Let's get down to brass tacks.* In a society of assertive people, one does not have to spend a lot of time on pleasantries or on various circumlocutions before getting to the heart of the matter at hand. It is possible to pay relatively little attention to people's feelings and to focus the discussion on details (the "brass tacks" or "nitty-gritty") at once.

Point 4: *Tell it like it is.* In general, people in the U.S. are more concerned about reporting things completely and accurately than about preserving feelings or saving "face." Objectivity is highly valued. On the other hand, lying is tolerated in some social situations in order to keep from embarrassing someone with minor criticism or disapproval. These tolerable lies are called "white lies."

Point 5: *Put all your cards on the table.* The image in this case is derived from certain card games (such as poker) in which the final score is determined after all players put their cards down. Truth cannot be discovered, nor important decisions made, unless and until the interested parties lay out *all* their facts and feelings for everyone to examine. Such candidness will benefit everyone in the long run, even though the immediate effect of this assertive behavior may be embarrassment or hurt feelings.

Point 4: *A little kindness goes a long way.* The obvious meaning of this saying is that a small act of kindness can make a big difference in a relationship. But it also is possible that *little* is the significant word here, emphasizing that people in the U.S. have little tolerance for feelings of obligation or commitment that are without limits in terms of scope and duration.

Point 5: *Familiarity breeds contempt.* While it is true that U.S. people (in comparison with people from many other cultures) seem open and intimate on short acquaintance, it is also true that there are limits on the extent to which they engage in self-disclosure. This proverb points out that one can know *too much* about another person, that is, that there's a point beyond which knowledge about another leads to a reduction in the quality of the relationship. Individualism and the protection of one's own self-interest become impossible if one's life is too intertwined with the life of someone else.

Point 6: *A dog is a man's best friend.* This saying may be a tribute to the faithful dog, loyal when others have let one down. But it may be useful to wonder whether there are other reasons why U.S. people are so attached to dogs. Could it be that a person's obligations to a dog are limited, and that the dog (being clearly subordinate to the person) does not compromise the person's individuality or independence, nor hinder his pursuit of self-interest?

Point 7: *A friend in need is a friend indeed.* In other words, when one is really in dire straits, those who are willing to help are one's true friends. This proverb reminds us that U.S. people often show prodigious generosity to those who have suffered disaster. At other times, however, they may not be especially generous because doing so may make the other person seem dependent.

Point 8: *Charity begins at home.* When other people are not in dire straits, one should tend to one's own needs (and to the needs of his nuclear family) first. If everyone is successful in looking after
cessary and feelings of obligation to others can be comfortably maintained at a low level.

Point 9: *Don't be generous to a fault.* This expression is interesting because it tacitly admits that in the U.S. one can be *too* generous. Being too generous is likely to interfere with the recipient's feeling of personal autonomy, and could undermine the giver's self-interest, too.

Point 10: *Good fences make good neighbors.* One should keep one's neighbors at arm's length and not become too involved in their personal lives. One should clearly distinguish between what belongs to one's neighbor and what belongs to oneself. *Friendliness*, if not friendship, is promoted by keeping one's fences mended.

PART IV -- TIME CONSCIOUSNESS

Point 1: *Time is money.* This proverb equates time to something else well known to be highly valued by people in the U.S. This is not merely poetic license, however, since in the world of private enterprise a monetary value very often can be placed on a given period of time.

Point 2: *Time flies.* There are cultures in the world where time is experienced as passing slowly, and others where people are scarcely conscious of time at all (except perhaps in terms of the four seasons). In the U.S., on the other hand, people are highly conscious of the "movement" of time and believe that it is passing rapidly.

Point 3: *Time and tide wait for no man.* The passage of time is not only rapid, but also inexorable and relentless, as is the movement of the tides of the oceans . . . at least as experienced by U.S. people. Therefore, one must conform to the demands of time. One can readily become a "slave to the clock" in the United States.

Point 4: *A stitch in time saves nine.* The image in this case is of a seamstress or tailor seeing a weak spot in the seam of an item of clothing. The weakness could be ignored, but one can foresee that sooner or later it will tear open and then require far more time and effort to mend. From the point of view of U.S. people, it is preferable to take "timely" action now and mend it with one quick stitch than to wait and have to put in nine stitches later. Doing it now takes more time now, but "saves time" in the long run. "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

Point 5: *The early bird catches the worm.* Taking timely action, which is valued in the U.S., often requires that one be first . . . or "the firstest with the mostest." Especially when resources in demand are limited (worms, for example), being on the scene first is very likely to serve one's self-interest well.

Point 6: *Make hay while the sun shines.* Taking timely action also requires that one seize any available opportunity as soon as it presents itself. It may rain tomorrow, so if it's sunny today one should get to work on the hay without delay.

Point 7: *Let's cross that bridge when we come to it.* At first sight, this expression seems to contradict the importance of timely action. However, in this case, the emphasis is on the *limits* on one's ability to foresee the future, and on the futility of "wasting time" by worrying unnecessarily about the unknown. When one is

face-to-face with a problem or challenge in the here and now, one can deal with it realistically.

Point 8: *Try to kill two birds with one stone.* Time consciousness in the U.S. includes the notion that efficiency is desirable. If one can make one action (throwing a stone, for example) serve two purposes (killing two birds instead of merely one), all the better. Energy and resources, as well as time, are saved.

PART V -- RESTLESSNESS

Point 1: *Don't put off until tomorrow what you can do today.* In the U.S., work and activity are valued highly. If there's a task to be done, it's better to do it in the present than in the future, other considerations being equal. Leisure is enjoyed preferably after all tasks that are available have been completed.

Point 2: *An idle mind is the devil's workshop.* This proverb seems to be based on an assumption that one's mind cannot be truly idle, but is always groping about for *something* to figure out, think about, or plan. Better, then, to have worthwhile projects lined up than to give one's mind a chance to relax, for instead of relaxing it is likely to turn restlessly to a project of its own devising . . . which may lead to mischief.

Point 3: *Actions speak louder than words.* This is another way of saying that practice is preferable to theory. People may have good ideas and be well motivated, but what they actually *do* is of the highest importance. Constant activity, especially when productive in nature, is far more highly valued than thought.

Point 4: *Keep up with the Joneses.* The "Joneses" are a mythical family whom one regards more or less as one's peers. The Joneses should not be allowed to get ahead of oneself in terms of social or economic status. One should not be content with the status quo (as it applies to oneself), but should constantly endeavor to *at least* keep pace with the (presumably) rising fortunes of one's peers. One must restlessly pursue success.

Point 5: *A watched pot never boils.* Restlessness as a trait in the U.S. includes an inability to be content with the occurrence of procedures and events in their own good time. Of course, a watched pot *does* boil eventually, but the restless person *experiences* the time required for boiling as interminably long, and can bear the wait only by finding something else to do.

Point 6: *A rolling stone gathers no moss.* As a stone in the same location and position gathers moss on one side, so the person who accepts the status quo becomes complacent and fuzzy-minded. Better to move on to new challenges and new opportunities every once and a while.

Point 7: *A sleeping fox catches no poultry.* It's not wrong to sleep in the U.S., but it's wrong to sleep too much. One should relax only so much as is necessary to refresh oneself for productive activity; the goal of the worthwhile life is productive activity, not leisure.

Point 8: *The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.* A congenital illness, so to speak, of U.S. people seems to be an inability to be content with things as they are. One is always looking out over one's fence to see how matters are progressing for others, and one tends to be impressed especially by those others who are doing better than oneself. Having seen that a better existence is possible, the proper thing to do is to strive to achieve it . . . or at least to feel properly envious!

PART VI -- OPTIMISM

Point 1: *Never say die.* The optimist never gives up so long as there's a single ray of hope remaining. He keeps on trying to achieve his objective.

Point 2: *If at first you don't succeed, try, try again.* The optimism is loath to admit failure, and reluctant to concede that the task is impossible. He keeps on trying -- trying to improve his skill, deepen his willpower, heighten his energy, or commit more time -- in the expectation that eventually he will prevail.

Point 3: *Where there's a will, there's a way.* The important feature of this proverb is the emphasis on *will-power.* Motivation is accorded great respect in the U.S., and a strongly motivated person is viewed very optimistically. It is believed that his will power will enable him to find some way of accomplishing his objective, even in the face of great odds.

Point 4: *The bigger they are, the harder they fall.* Here the image is of a David-and-Goliath contest. The smaller opponent is at a disadvantage, or so it seems. However, he may have certain advantages, and if he capitalizes on them he may be able to deliver a mighty blow to the larger opponent. The latter may gravely injure himself in falling, due to his great weight. The optimist concentrates on his opponents *dis*advantages, and on the ways in which supposed advantages of his opponent can be exploited to give the optimist the victory.

Point 5: *Practice makes perfect.* What is interesting about this proverb is that it is based on an assumption that perfection *is* attainable. Furthermore, it suggests that almost anyone can attain perfection through constant and dedicated practice. This is the optimist's point of view: Sufficient time, energy, skill, and will-power *will* eventually lead to perfection, or near-perfection. (Perfection, though attainable in theory, isn't always desirable in practice, as was discussed above under "Pragmatism.")

Point 6: *When the going gets tough, the tough get going.* This play on words reminds us that the optimist is not cowed by increased adversity, but rather challenged. Tougher conditions merely call forth tougher effort, and the expectation is that success eventually will be attained.

Point 7: *Great oaks from little acorns grow.* In evaluating the possibility for success of any undertaking, the optimist pays little attention to the modesty of the initial resources, concentrating instead on the factors that are likely to make the project a huge success. Commitment of time, energy, skill, and will-power are key factors that people in the U.S. believe will enable an idea as humble as a tiny acorn to grow into something as large and sturdy as a great oak tree. (A hidden assumption is, however, that the project is realistic in scope, as we saw above under "Pragmatism.")

Point 8: *The difficult we do at once; the impossible takes a little longer.* This motto of the U.S. Navy's combat engineers (the "Sea Bees") during World War Two is the highest expression of the optimistic outlook on life. It refuses to admit that anything is completely unrealistic or impossible; sufficient effort can meet any conceivable challenge.

Six Key Values and Characteristic Traits of People in the U.S.

Pragmatism

In comparison with people from many other cultures, people in the United States are intensely practical. The focus of their attention is on the "here and now," on the realities of the situation at hand, and on what can be actually accomplished with readily available resources. People in this culture spend relatively little time dreaming about fantastic possibilities; rather, they lay plans for "*do*-able" projects and then begin to implement them as soon as possible. Similarly, they tend to be distrustful of theories and other intellectualized abstractions; they are far more interested in knowing simply whether a thing or an idea *works*, that is, produces the intended results. People in the U.S. are flexible and adaptable and inventive because not being so usually slows down or blocks effective action. Getting *something* done, in other words, is seen as preferable to holding out for exactly what one hoped for -- and possibly achieving nothing as a result. Finally, U.S. people seldom wait for the intervention of supernatural forces, or for good omens or fate, or for the right person to come along and help. They are more likely to jump right in, figure things out for themselves on a trial-and-error basis, improvise where necessary, and try to get the job done well enough so that the intended results are accomplished. To people from other cultures, people in the U.S. seem to concentrate too heavily on finding the best *means* to accomplish a task, and to be insufficiently concerned about the character and impact of the *ends* that they are trying to achieve.

Assertiveness

To an extent rarely seen in other cultures, most people in the U.S. tend to be candid and outspoken, and to share very readily with others a wide range of facts about their personal lives, even on short acquaintance. (This is not to say that there are not taboo topics in the U.S.) They expect "direct" questions, to which they respond with "straight" answers. When they have disagreements or become angry with each other, they usually try to resolve their differences in a face-to-face meeting rather than by relying on the services of go-betweens. In dealing with others who are seeking advice or guidance, people in the U.S. try to be as objective and accurate as possible, whereas people from a number of other cultures try to say something that the other person will find pleasing or reassuring. Furthermore, U.S. people tend not to be deeply concerned about causing others to "lose face," unlike people from Oriental cultures. On the other hand, it is important to keep in mind that U.S. people certainly do *not* deliberately set out, day by day, to insult or pick fights with one another. They value amiability and mutual agreement, and are quite capable to telling "white lies" to eliminate unnecessary embarrassment in many social situations. Nevertheless, it is well known that U.S. people are often experienced by people from other cultures as assertive, even seemingly *aggressive*, in their daily relationships with friends, colleagues, and acquaintances.

Friendliness

Getting used to the meaning and practice of friendship is one of the more difficult adjustments faced by many foreign visitors in the U.S. In many other cultures, the type of relationship that we in the U.S. term "friendship" would be called merely an "acquaintanceship." People in the U.S. tend to be very warm, informal, open, and positive -- in a word, *friendly* -- toward virtually everyone they meet, and this leads foreign visitors to believe that the stage that they call acquaintanceship is rapidly passing, and that a friendship is in the making. This belief is given credibility by the habit of U.S. people of referring to most of the people they know as "friends." However, friendship *as the foreign visitors understand it* follows in very few cases, with the result that the foreigner feels distinctly let down. (Visitors often begin to feel let down when a person who was extremely *friendly* to them on first meeting passes them a few days later and breezes by with the typical "Hi! How ya doin'? Lovely day, isn't it? Well, see ya around.") Another way of looking at all this is to note that in many other cultures, establishing a friendship with another person is a long process, one that is not always engaged in because *one doesn't expect to establish a friendship with many other people*. But once a friendship *is* established, it is characterized by deep-seated feelings of commitment and obligation that know very few limits on their scope and duration. In the United States, on the other hand, we "make friends" with a great deal of ease . . . and we are willing and able to part with our friends rather easily, too. It has been said by some who have tried to take an objective view of our culture that we are so concerned about individualism, and about maintaining our personal independence, and about pursuing our own self-interest, that we tend to act as though deep and durable friendships, complete with unlimited mutual obligations, are likely to smother us. Whether or not one agrees with that assessment, data from cross-cultural studies makes it clear that *what we call "friendship" in the U.S. is relatively superficial when compared with the pattern common in many other cultures*. The pattern in the U.S. seems to be this: We have numerous "friends" at any one time, but who these friends are keeps changing throughout our lives. Our friends are more likely to be linked to specific activities (golfing partners, work colleagues, jogging companions, drinking buddies, bridge foursomes) than to carry through all aspects of our lives. Even those whom we may think of as "best friends" or "special friends" may change again and again as the decades roll by. One of the main reasons why we in the U.S. are so *friendly* with just about everyone we encounter, while at the same time being reluctant to form lasting and intimate friendships, is that we are highly mobile, both in terms of changing our places of residence and employment frequently, and in terms of moving up (or down) the socioeconomic ladder. Under these circumstances, it is easier for us to form transitory and relatively shallow relationships with others.

Time Consciousness

People in the U.S. deal with time as though it were a sort of ribbon coming into view in the future (the direction in which they are facing), rushing past them in the present at a rapid and relentless pace, and

disappearing in the past (behind them). The movement of this ribbon of time is a matter of great concern to them. They feel they must measure this movement and constantly remain aware of its progress. And they have increasingly applied the value of *thrift* to time, with the result that they tend to be preoccupied with concerns such as punctuality, speed, and the importance of somehow "saving" time. Another aspect of U.S. people's consciousness of time is the importance they attach to timeliness of action. This trait involves both a readiness to seize opportunity quickly whenever it presents itself, and a habit of looking into the *foreseeable* (that is, not too distant) future in order to plan for contingencies that, if not dealt with in advance, might eventually hinder progress, ruin valuable resources, or put opportunities beyond their grasp. Another feature of time consciousness in the U.S. is the devotion to efficiency, which has been defined simply as "doing things right," that is, doing them well with minimum waste of resources, including time. If two things can be accomplished with the same effort that previously was spent on accomplishing one, so much the better. So thoroughly have U.S. people accepted their assumptions about time that they can scarcely believe, let alone comprehend, that many other peoples have a completely different outlook. Some peoples do not feel that time is rushing by, and don't even think of it as something that is moving like a ribbon; to such people, if the "passage of time" has any meaning at all, it is probably in terms of the change of the seasons.

Restlessness

Constant activity is a characteristic of many people in the U.S. They like to get things done; they feel that "variety is the spice of life"; they are uncomfortable with silences; they become impatient when forced to wait. Most U.S. people find it extremely difficult to sit quietly and do absolutely nothing, in contrast to people from cultures where no special virtue is associated with accomplishing one thing after another. And although they are usually quite gregarious, people in the U.S. tend to devalue talk and to see productive activity as being the only thing of any real worth. Conscious as they are of personal success and individual achievement, they generally feel a motivation to work to "get ahead," that is, to better the conditions of their lives if not to actually surpass their peers in the competitive struggle for wealth and status. Some people in this country change their residences so often that they almost could be considered nomads; many don't feel they've had a proper vacation unless they've traveled hundreds, if not thousands, of miles to exotic places. The distance traveled by some to work each day is greater than that traveled by many people in other countries on the longest journey of their lives! This constant activity and striving and moving about leads visitors from other cultures to conclude that people from this culture seem "driven."

Optimism

One of the most characteristic traits of people from U.S. culture is their optimism, or (as it is more often referred to by anthropologists)

effort-optimism. Effort-optimism is fundamentally an assumption that any task can be accomplished, any challenge met, any barrier overcome, if only sufficient quantities of time, energy, skill, and will power are brought to bear on the project being undertaken. In short, we are *optimistic* about the eventual outcome of our *effort*. It is important to realize that the assumption is *not* that success will be achieved easily, but rather that success *can* be achieved eventually. If success is not achieved, the problem usually is not seen in terms of the impossibility of the task, nor in terms of fate or the lack of God's blessing. Instead, the assumption tends to be that insufficient effort was employed, and that increased effort would have resulted in success. Furthermore, such a realization usually leads to renewed efforts. Closely related is a consciousness of the fact that all great things have had small beginnings. In other words, a great idea -- though *only* a thought in one person's mind -- *can* be converted into practical reality if sufficient time, energy, skill, and will-power are applied. Another closely related notion is that perfection is possible -- not easily achieveable, to be sure, but nevertheless *possible* if enough effort is expended. The quintessential example of effort-optimism is the motto of the U.S. Navy's combat engineers (the "Sea Bees") during World War Two: "The difficult we do at once; the impossible takes a little longer." Note that this motto clearly rules out the impossibility of failure, though admits that (slight!) delay may be inevitable when the task is overwhelming. People from other cultures, generally speaking, are less likely to assume that they can accomplish virtually anything, and are more likely to take fate or supernatural forces into account in their assessment of whether to undertake a project in the first place.

Proverbs and Characteristic Expressions of People in the U.S. . . .

. . . Illustrating Their PRAGMATISM:

- A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.
- There's more than one way to skin a cat.
- God helps those who help themselves.
- If you can't lick 'em, join 'em.
- Don't build castles in the sky.
- No use crying over spilt milk.
- Leave well enough alone.
- Don't bite the hand that feeds you.
- Build a better mousetrap, and the world will beat a pathway to your door.

. . . Illustrating Their ASSERTIVENESS:

- The squeaky wheel gets the grease.
- Stand up and be counted.
- Let's get down to brass tacks.
- Tell it like it is.
- Put all your cards on the table.
- Don't beat around the bush.
- Give it to 'em straight from the shoulder.
- Stick to your guns.

. . . Illustrating the Nature of Their FRIENDLINESS:

- Make yourself at home.
- Don't stand on ceremony.
- Let your hair down.
- A little kindness goes a long way.
- Familiarity breeds contempt.
- A dog is a man's best friend.
- A friend in need is a friend indeed.
- Charity begins at home.
- Don't be generous to a fault.
- Good fences make good neighbors.

. . . Illustrating Their TIME CONSCIOUSNESS:

- Time is money.
- Time flies.
- Time and tide wait for no man.
- A stitch in time saves nine.
- The early bird catches the worm.
- Make hay while the sun shines.
- Let's cross that bridge when we come to it.
- Try to kill two birds with one stone.

. . . Illustrating Their RESTLESSNESS:

- Don't put off until tomorrow what you can do today.
- An idle mind is the devil's workshop.
- Actions speak louder than words.
- Keep up with the Joneses.
- A watched pot never boils.
- A rolling stone gathers no moss.
- A sleeping fox catches no poultry.
- The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.

. . . Illustrating their OPTIMISM:

- Never say die.
- If at first you don't succeed, try, try again.
- Where there's a will, there's a way.
- The bigger they are, the harder they fall.
- Practice makes perfect.
- When the going gets tough, the tough get going.
- Great oaks from little acorns grow.
- The difficult we do at once; the impossible takes a little longer.

INFORMALITY is a highly characteristic feature of life in the United States. People act pretty much the same everywhere -- in schools, offices, restaurants, homes, and even in the presence of others who are clearly of a higher social status due to age, education, occupation, wealth, or official status. As you get to know U.S. people, you will discover that they *do* have subtle ways of acknowledging the higher status of another person, and that they *do* shift slightly between more and less informal behavior, depending on the social situation. However, on the whole, they are an informal people who stress equality and democracy in their daily lives.

Homestay Program Orientation

FAMILY AND KINSHIP IN THE U.S.A.

Leader's Guide

Objectives:

1. To point out demographic and social trends in U.S. family life from the early 1800s to the present.
2. To provide a general introduction to some of the typical features of relationships between family members and kin in the U.S.
3. To help the students become aware that different families in the U.S. have different ways of structuring their relationships and daily routines.

Students' Materials: *Homestay Program Orientation Manual* (one per student)

Leader's Materials: For preparatory reading, see *An Overview of Family and Kinship in the U.S.*, included herein. It is assumed that the Leader will be able to draw upon his or her own experience (and knowledge of the experiences of others) as a family member in presenting this session.

Time Required: Approximately two hours, structured as follows:

35 minutes: Part I - Historical Trends in Family Relations in the U.S.
35 minutes: Part II - Patterns of Family and Kinship in the U.S. Today
50 minutes: Part III - Three Types of U.S. Families

PART I -- HISTORICAL TRENDS IN FAMILY RELATIONS IN THE U.S.

Point 1: In a typical rural family during the 1800s, *both parents spent most of their time working in the presence of their children*; generally, neither parent left the family's farm to do his or her productive labor. The work done by each parent was determined largely by sex, but both parents had child-raising responsibilities. (Actually, men were considered the legal guardians of the children.)

Point 2: During the 1800s, *children made a direct contribution to the economic welfare of the household*, just as did both of their parents. The girls helped their mothers do women's work; the boys helped their fathers do men's work. Children were viewed by their parents, among other things, as an economic asset to the family.

Point 3: The Industrial Revolution changed the common pattern of family life because *men were increasingly drawn away from the family property in order to do productive labor.* The women were left to do most or all of the work associated with the home, including raising the children. Two myths arose: that men were ill-suited to raise children, and that women were ill-suited for work away from the home.

Point 4: Attitudes toward children changed in the early decades of the 1900s. *Childhood was increasingly viewed as a period of intellectual and emotional development*; the assumption that children should make an economic contribution to the welfare of the family diminished. Laws prohibiting child labor and requiring more and more years of school attendance were enacted, restricting children's ability to do productive labor.

Point 5: Slowly, over the decades, *romantic love became increasingly important as a criterion for mate selection*; considerations of a person's productive capacity and social worth declined in importance, as did one's parents' power over the selection of a spouse. Factors contributing to this gradual change included . . .

- the decrease in parental authority and increase in permissive child-rearing practices;
- the shift in the primary source of family income away from the family's property; and
- the growing emphases on individualism and on the importance of companionship in marriage.

Point 6: The Great Depression of the 1930s as well as World War Two in the early 1940s brought about social changes. *Between 1930 and 1945, the birthrate dropped and more and more women began to obtain paid employment outside the home,* especially during the war. This experience began to undermine the myth that women were ill-suited for such work.

Point 7: After World War Two, as soldiers returned, the pattern common in the early 1900s re-appeared: *Women remained at home and raised children, while men worked away from the family property.* The birthrate skyrocketed between 1945 and 1960, a period of relative economic prosperity in the U.S. (See chart illustrating fertility rate in students' manual.)

Point 8: *Within the past fifteen years the divorce rate has climbed sharply.* Some people who study family life in the U.S. have suggested that the rising expectations for romantic love and abiding companionship in marriage are at least partially responsible for the rising divorce rate because these expectations are almost impossible to meet -- especially in a society where individualism is highly valued.

Point 9: Another period of social change began in the late 1960s. Due to both increasing inflation and the rising expectations of families to achieve the "American dream," *women began entering the work-force in increasing numbers, and the birth rate dropped sharply.* The percentage of nuclear families not living in their own private house or apartment, consistently low throughout the twentieth century, dropped to an incredibly low 1.2% in 1980. (See charts in the students' manual.)

Point 10: *Today, 45% of all women in the U.S. hold full-time jobs.* Even among married mothers with children under six years of age, 45% are employed on a full- or part-time basis. How these women are treated in the workplace is a major social issue; they have difficulty obtaining jobs equal to their training or talent, and are paid an average of 59¢ for every dollar earned by men.

Point 11: With more women employed outside the home, *many changes are occurring in the way housework is being done.* Especially in younger and more highly educated families, little distinction is being made between "women's work" and "men's work" in the home. Men are increasingly participating in raising children, and "house-husbands" are beginning to appear for the first time.

Point 12: Two opposing movements are now found in the U.S. *The women's liberation movement* (in which some men are active) is attempting to erase the last vestiges of the myth that women are ill-suited for work outside the home, and is fighting for equal treatment of women in the workplace. *The pro-family movement* (in which some women are active) advocates a return to the traditional pattern of mother-as-homemaker in the belief that this promotes stability and morality in society as well as in families.

PART II -- PATTERNS OF FAMILY AND KINSHIP IN THE U.S. TODAY

Point 1: The U.S. Census defines a family as two or more individuals who share a household and who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption. *A family in the U.S. is most likely to consist of a husband and wife living alone or with their unmarried children under the age of 18.* In the U.S., the percentage of married couples who do not live in their own private household (that is, who do live with members of their extended family) is extremely low.

Point 2: *Adults who are single, widowed, or divorced are much more likely to live alone, or with their minor children, than in someone else's household.* Very large households (of seven or more people) are extremely rare in the U.S., but single-person households are increasing steadily. (See chart in students' manual.) These facts attest to the deeply felt value of individualism in the U.S.

Point 3: *Until they are about 18 years old, teenagers live at home with their parents.* Parents are more liberal with their teenage sons and daughters than in some cultures, but more strict than in other cultures. Teenagers in the U.S. tend to spend most of their time with their friends pursuing common interests.

Point 4: *By age 22 or 23, children are expected to leave home if they have not already done so, and if economic circumstances permit.* Parents rarely oppose the departure of a child; more often, they will assist the child financially to live on his or her own, even in a distant place. The young people either live alone or with peers, sometimes in sexually mixed groups.

Point 5: *Elderly people generally prefer to live independently of their grown children.* When advancing age makes it too difficult for them to live alone, they usually move into a home for the aged. Some elderly people attempt to preserve their independence even after their ability to care for themselves is dangerously low.

Point 6: *The very low incidence of extended families living in one household must not be taken as evidence of total lack of concern between parents and their grown children.* It is true that the ties among family members are looser than in most other cultures. But parents and their grown children are concerned about each other and interested in the details of each other's lives. They remain in contact and help each other when assistance is really needed. Visits in both directions occur occasionally.

Point 7: *Siblings who are adults also remain in contact with each other.* However, the strength of this relationship often is not as strong as that existing between parents and their grown children. Siblings are more likely to remain in frequent contact if they have common interests, or if they were especially close as children. In a few cases, siblings may lose contact.

Point 8: Others in an individual's kinship system include grandparents, grandchildren, aunts, uncles, nieces, nephews, and cousins (usually first cousins). *Contacts between grandparents and grandchildren are frequent in many cases unless distance precludes visits; contacts with other relatives vary according to interest and may be sporadic.* A person may not even know all of his first cousins. Communication between a person and his aunts, uncles, nieces, nephews, and cousins may occur directly or indirectly. However, during the holiday season at the end of the year, greeting cards are usually exchanged.

Point 9: *Children in the U.S. generally are expected to determine the course of their own education and to select their own careers.* They are expected to be guided in making these choices primarily by their own interests, abilities, and values. Parents may have career aspirations for their children, but remain prepared to accept their children's own choices. Parents feel justified in becoming upset with a child who is wasting his talents.

Point 10: From this set of facts, *certain conclusions emerge:*

1. Adults in the U.S. place extremely high value on individualism, independence, and their own personal self-interest.
2. After self-interest, an adult feels responsibility for his or her spouse, and after that for his or her children (especially *minor* children). The marriage bond is the basis for family life in the U.S.; it is stronger than the parent-child bond.
3. After the nuclear family, an adult feels responsibility for the welfare of his or her parents. However, parents and their adult children rarely share the same household in the U.S.
4. After one's parents, an adult *may or may not* feel responsibility for other relatives. For relatives more distant than one's own siblings or grandchildren, any feeling of responsibility is likely to be very limited.

PART III -- THREE TYPES OF U.S. FAMILIES

Directions: The purpose of Part III of this session is to help the members of your group become aware of the fact that there are different types of families in the United States. In the research literature on U.S. families, three archetypal varieties of families have been described: the *structured* family, the *open* family, and the *spontaneous* family. It should be clear that very few actual families fall neatly into one of these three categories. Nevertheless, most families can be described as *tending* more in one of these directions than in either of the other two.

In the students' manual, a one-page description is given of each of three fictitious families. The Meyers family is an example of a wholly structured pattern, the Nestor family is an example of a wholly open pattern, and the Reiss family is an example of a wholly spontaneous pattern. A chart following the preparatory reading in this Leader's Guide may help you form some generalizations regarding the three types of families.

During the time that remains in this session (about 50 minutes), use the information in the students' manual and in this Leader's Guide, plus your own knowledge, to lead a discussion with respect to these three types of families. Be sure to point out that the expression of emotions varies from family to family, too. You should expect that the students will want to discuss both their natural and host families during this discussion.

An Overview of Family and Kinship in the U.S.

History of Family Relations in the U.S.

In the 1800s, the American family was an economically productive unit. In a nineteenth century farm family, all members of the household who were old enough worked at home to produce food. Although there was usually a division of labor according to sex roles -- with mother and daughters working in the kitchen to preserve food and prepare meals, and father and sons working in the fields -- both parents spent most of their time working in the presence of their children.

The Industrial Revolution changed the life of the average American family. Fathers who worked in industry were taken out of their homes for most of each day, and mothers took on the parenting responsibilities of both parents. As the family's survival depended on the father's employment away from the home, men developed their talents in the workplace and "mothering" became the primary occupation for women. Gradually, Americans began to assume that women were not capable of understanding the world of business and that men were not capable of understanding how to raise children. Although many Americans no longer hold this opinion, this image of family roles has been strong, and still affects life in the U.S.

New job opportunities in factories were also opening up for women, and women's ability to earn their own money encouraged them to seek more rights in U.S. society. In 1920, women won the right to vote. Women also won the right to sit on juries, to be co-guardians of their own children, and to petition for divorce. This improved status for women meant a relative decrease in the status of husbands and fathers.

Knowledge about birth control methods spread in the early 20th century. Household size was continually decreasing, due in part to a declining birth rate, but also to a decrease in extended families, live-in servants, and borders.

American attitudes toward children also changed. Whereas previously children were seen as valuable for the work they provided for the family, child labor laws and mandatory school attendence diminished the child's freedom to work. A new philosophy concerning children arose in the U.S., based largely on Freudian theory: The childhood years were now seen as crucial to personality development. The increasing emphasis on the individual also helped create an atmosphere in which children's special needs were felt to be of paramount importance. Parents tended to be more permissive with their children in the early 20th century than in previous generations.

As a feature of the decrease in parental authority, individuals in the 20th century almost always select their own spouses. The selection criteria changed as well; romantic love became the most important criterion for mate selection. Previously, economic and social factors governed mate selection, but as the economic funtions were shifted away from the home, and as individual economic mobility increased,

these factors became less important. Personal characteristics were more important for a marriage whose primary purpose was increasingly becoming companionship.

The Depression and World War II caused hardships for American families. Birthrates dropped off sharply. In 1930 the average annual rate of population increase was 1.46%. By 1940, it was only 0.74%. During the war years, employment increased at the same time as a good portion of the male population was overseas. Women were recruited to fill many jobs previously held by men. Many of these women had married their husbands hastily as the men were leaving for war,* and took these jobs to earn money, fill their time while their husbands fought in the war, and to contribute to the war effort.

The end of World War II brought with it tremendous changes in U.S. families. The servicemen came home from the war and promptly began having children. With many men now looking for jobs, women who had held these jobs were replaced by returning servicemen, and the women began to stay at home to raise the children. The U.S. Government encouraged the construction industry and home ownership by offering G.I. mortgages to the ruturning servicemen.

All of these changes led to a sharp increase in the birthrate, and a rapid increase of single-family housing in the suburbs. The birthrate leveled off in the 1950s, but remained high, so that by 1960, 20.5% of all families had three or more children under 18 years of age (in contrast to 14.2% in 1950). During this "baby boom" era, the economy prospered, and it was not difficult for middle class families to buy a home and raise several children on the father's income.

Although this pattern of family life might have been seen as the ideal -- and is remembered fondly by some even today -- it no longer represents the typical American family. Today, only 16.3% of the 56 million families in the U.S. are families with a father employed full-time outside the home and a mother who is a full-time homemaker.

A change which has occured within the past fifteen years is the rise in the divorce rate. In 1980, for example, there were nearly half as many divorces registered as there were marriages in that year (2,413,000 marriages and 1,182,000 divorces). The number of single-parent families has increased 50% since 1969. While divorced people frequently remarry (over 30% of all people marrying are remarrying), nearly one child in five lives in a single-parent family, and 80% of these families are headed by the mother.

Many children in the United States, then, are living with one parent and visiting the other. If one or the other of the parents has remarried, the children will have step-parents, and possibly step-brothers and step-sisters. Developing these new relationships and adjusting to new marital situations is often difficult for the children and the parents. However, the growing public acceptance of divorce has made it possible for divorcing families to discuss their problems openly, which Americans generally find helpful.

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*The divorce rate rose for a brief period immediately following World War II, then dropped to its earlier level.

In the 1970s, American families found it increasingly difficult to survive on the salary of the father alone. Through choice or through necessity, married women increasingly became a part of the U.S. workforce. Divorced and widowed women also found that they had to work, because they could not support themselves on alimony or insurance payments. In 1978 some 41% of all people employed in the U.S. were women. Further, 45% of married mothers with children under 6 years old now work outside the home, and 45% of all women hold full-time jobs.

However, these employed women only earn about 59¢ for every $1.00 that men earn. This earnings gap is roughly the same as the gap that existed between men and women in 1939. Women have to work 9 days, on the average, to earn the same amount as men earn in 5 days, and women with four years of college still earn less than men with eighth-grade educations. Because more and more women need to work to support themselves and their families, women have increasingly recognized and fought against these inequalities. The women's liberation movement in the U.S. has been active in trying to counter discrimination against women in wages and employment opportunities.

The women's liberation movement has also helped bring about changes within the family. A woman who holds down a full-time job like her husband is more and more likely to insist that her husband take on half of the chores that need to be done in the home (although in most U.S. homes it is still the woman who takes on the majority of household chores). Different families divide the housekeeping chores differently, but in an increasing number of American families, there is no distinction between women's work and men's work. This is especially true for couples who are well-educated and fairly young.

At the same time, there is an opposing movement, sometimes called the "pro-family" movement. This movement seeks to re-establish as the normal pattern the family with the wife in the role of full-time homemaker. Proponents of the pro-family movement believe that children need full-time access to their mothers, and that families who do not fit the traditional model are less stable and may be the cause for a general breakdown in the moral values of U.S. society. The pro-family movement has recently been very active on the political scene, opposing the Equal Rights Amendment (which would amend the U.S. Constitution to guarantee women rights equivalent to those of men), and working to prohibit abortion. These and other political actions are seen as part of an effort to bring about a change in society so that traditional family patterns can thrive.

Describing Family and Kinship in the U.S.

The U.S. Census defines a family as two or more individuals sharing a household who are related by blood, marriage, or adoption. U.S. families are most likely to contain parents and their young children, or a married couple living alone. Adults who are single, divorced, or widowed are more likely to live alone, or with their small children if they have any, than to live with other relatives. Children are expected to leave their parents' home when they are adults -- even if they have not married. Elderly parents generally prefer to live in

their own households as long as they are able, rather than live with their grown children.

It should not be assumed that parents are unconcerned about their grown children simply because they so rarely live in the same household. Rather, the parents and the children both assume that they should live independently of each other. Parents in the U.S. will frequently help their grown children to live independently by giving them or lending them money for a down-payment on a home of their own. They will also assist their married children by offering to babysit for the grandchildren. A mother is likely to travel hundreds or thousands of miles if necessary to assist her daughter when the daughter is having a baby.

Grown children are also quite concerned about their elderly parents, and will travel to be with them when they are ill, or help financially if necessary. Again, though, the assumption is that it is preferable for the elderly parents to maintain as much independence as possible. It is seen as somewhat degrading for the elderly to have to depend on their children since it means that they have lost the highly prized ability to take care of their own lives. Similarly, adults who live in their parents' home feel the need to move out to show that they are adults, and mature enough to care for themselves.

Relationships with other relatives outside the household may also be strong. Brothers and sisters who are adults may see each other regularly if they live in the same town. Even if they live in different cities, they may keep in frequent contact through phone calls, letters and an occasional visit. However, adults in the U.S. do not always feel a strong obligation to their brothers and sisters. If the siblings do not share a common interest, or if they were not close -- or were antagonistic -- in childhood, they are not as likely to be close as adults.

Other relatives who are important in the kinship system include grandparents and grandchildren; aunts, uncles, nieces and nephews; and cousins. In general, an American will at least know the names of these relatives and may be in regular contact with them. Indirect communication often exists, however. Some relatives in the extended family network pass information about the family to other relatives. In this way a woman talking with her mother may learn that her nephew has a new job, for example, instead of learning about it directly from the nephew.

Maintaining contact with relatives outside the immediate family is frequently handled by the women in the family. This is not a strict rule, but generally the wife will arrange visits with relatives, will write and telephone relatives more frequently than her husband, even when they are his relatives who are being contacted.

In the U.S., the marriage bond is seen as the basis for the family, and the primary source for support and security. In other cultures, for example, a widowed or divorced parent with small children might be expected to live with his or her kin. This would be unusual in the United States. Instead, the widowed or divorced parent is expected to find another spouse. Friends and relatives may even attempt to ar-

range meetings with suitable potential mates, and encourage the newly single person to date after a suitable time, so that he or she may soon find a new spouse and be part of a family again.

Although in some families children may be urged to join in a family business or follow a certain occupation that is traditional in the family (especially doctors and lawyers, and possibly entertainers), parents usually expect that their children will choose their own carrers and their own spouses. Parents in the U.S. feel that it is important for their children to make these decdisons concerning their future, since this is a display of their independence and assures the parents that their children will be able to survive on their own. On the other hand, parents may become upset when their children who have strong abilities are apparently wasting those abilities on a low status career.

Three Types of Family Organization

Each family operates in its own, unique fashion. The way in which a family organizes itself reflects the needs and personalities of the family members and is subject to change as the circumstances of the family change.

Family researchers David Kantor and William Lehr have studied a wide variety of families in the U.S. and have concluded that there is no one ideal family type, but that any of a variety of family patterns can work effectively to maintain a happy family.[1] The three types of families discussed below show in stereotypical fashion how different families may organize their lives. All three family types can be considered normal, healthy, and happy.

• THE STRUCTURED FAMILY: The Meyers family, described in the students' manual, is an example of a structured family. In a structured family, the parents set goals for the family unit, and each member is expected to contribute his or her share toward that goal. The Meyers children do not question their responsibilities for household chores and homework. With their parents, they work to make sure that the household runs smoothly. Order is necessary for the structured family, and time is scheduled. In the Meyers family even relaxation activities are scheduled to fit in with the larger goals of getting homework done and eating dinner. Rooms and spaces in the closed family have a particular use at a particular time. In the Meyers family the dining table is for eating at 6 o'clock and for homework at 7:30. To every activity there is a structure -- a time and a place for engaging in that activity.

• THE OPEN FAMILY: The open family is characterized by consensus. Family members come to an agreement about what goals the family has, what activities are appropriate, and how time and space are to be used. This consensus is constantly evolving as daily circumstances demand. In the Nestor family, there is an agreement that children will let parents know in some way when they will be late or absent for dinner. There is some agreement about who washes dishes. But these agreements only amount to guidelines, and there is room for flexibil-

ity in the open family. This is why Linda Nestor can bargain to get out of washing the dishes when a more interesting activity presented itself. The use of space and time is more flexible than in the structured family. Any activity can be postponed or interrupted by a more interesting one; the dishes and homework wait until company leaves, and sleep for Linda Nestor waits until her homework is done.

• THE SPONTANEOUS FAMILY: The individual in a spontaneous family sets his or her own goals. When these goals come in conflict with those of another family member -- as may frequently occur -- distance may be used as a buffer to ease tension. Kevin Reiss leaves the house when his goal of watching television conflicts with his brother's goal of listening to a record. In a spontaneous family, time is ignored. Any member can decide to have a meal, do homework, watch TV, or engage in any other activity, at virtually any time of day or night. Rooms are used for whatever purpose the individual desires. David Reiss can eat in his bedroom if he chooses, and Kevin is free to sleep in the living room. Most decisions are made on the spur of the moment by the individual family members. Participation in activities with other members of the family is strictly voluntary; no member is forced to join in on a family activity.

• DISCUSSION: It is important to recognize that all three family types described in the examples have accomplished the following:

Each person has had dinner.
Each child has done homework.
Each family member has enjoyed some recreation.
Children in each family have had an opportunity to share the day's events with their parents.
Each family has washed the dishes.

However the styles that the families use to accomplish these things reflect basic differences in the ideals concerning family relationships that each family holds. In the structured family, the parents feel the need to maintain control, and see themselves as heads of the family. The open family would consider itself to be more democratic, since all members are able to propose goals for the family and have a say in selecting activities. The spontaneous family tries to keep multiple options open for each member by allowing each individual to select his or her own goals and activities.

Most U.S. families have a mixture of styles. One family may have structured mornings as the members have to schedule time in the bathroom, eat breakfast, pack lunches, and get ready for school and work. This same family may become very spontaneous once shcool and work are finished. An otherwise open family may have specific Saturday chores set down by the parents, and may ressemble a structured family during that time.

The case studies focus on the activities of the family types. There are also different styles of expressing feelings within the family. Families may be reserved with their emotions. In such families, members seldom openly show affection or anger towards other members of the family. Other families may openly show affection, but may try to control their anger by redirecting it, or leaving the situation for a

time. Still other families feel that all emotions -- positive and negative -- should be expressed freely. It does not follow, however, that structured families are reserved, open families show affection only, and spontaneous families express their emotions freely. A family whose activities are highly structured may or may not be reserved in the expression of feelings, for example, and even a spontaneous family may have some unspoken guidelines about how and when emotions are expressed.

Each family, then, is complex in its make-up. A family creates a lifestyle that will be an appropriate strategy for its survival.

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[1] David Kantor and William Lehr, *Inside the Family*. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976).

Some Generalizations About Three Types of Families Found in the U.S.A.			
Type / Category	The STRUCTURED Family	The OPEN Family	The SPONTANEOUS Family
Use of Time:	Time is strictly scheduled in advance. Activities occur on time.	Time is loosely scheduled in advance. Activities may be postponed.	Time is not scheduled. Activities are taken up spontaneously.
Use of Space:	Individual spaces have specific purposes that may vary *on schedule*.	Individual spaces have specific purposes that may vary *as needed*.	Individual spaces have multiple purposes that may overlap in time.
Pattern of Decision-Making:	Major decisions are made by parents; children *may or may not* be consulted.	Major decisions are arrived at through consensus of family members.	Individuals make most decisions; the family does little as a group.
Character of Family Interaction:	Parents and children work together to make things run smoothly.	Parents and children compromise to satisfy needs of one and all.	Individuals pursue own activities; family activities are voluntary.
Character of Interaction with Others:	Interactions with outsiders are planned well in advance.	Interactions with outsiders may be either planned or spontaneous.	Numerous interactions with outsiders occur spontaneously.
Defining Concept:	Order.	Democracy.	Individualism.
Example:	The Meyers family.	The Nestor family.	The Reiss family.

The Meyers Family

Jane and Bill Meyers get off the school bus and immediately go home to do their chores. In the kitchen Jane finds a note from her mother with instructions for the evening meal. She scrubs the potatoes and puts them in the oven according to her mother's directions. Bill's job today is to clean out the garage, so he changes his clothes first and then hurries out to the garage.

On his way home from work, Mr. Meyers picks up his wife at her office. They are home by 5:30. Mr. and Mrs. Meyers greet their children warmly then retreat to the living room for a half hour of cocktails. Jane and Bill know that their parents need time alone to unwind from their hectic jobs, so they stay out of the living room. Jane busies herself with the last minute preparations for dinner while Bill sets the table. They tease each other while they work.

At 6:00 the family gathers at the dinner table for the evening meal. Father says the blessing before dinner, then everyone begins to eat. During the dinner, father and mother praise Jane's cooking and the improved appearance of the garage. Dinner is the time for family discussion, and each member contributes something. Jane is excited about making the girl's basketball team and discusses with her parents how she will be able to attend practices and games and still keep up with her chores. Bill would like permission to go on a bike tour this weekend with his Scout troop. Father wants to know more about the bike tour before he gives his permission, but he thinks that it will probably be O.K. as long as Bill can be back in time for Sunday dinner. "Don't forget that your grandmother is visiting us for dinner this Sunday," he reminds Bill.

After dinner the children clear the table and go up to their rooms. Father wipes the table while mother starts doing the dishes. Jane and Bill now have about a half-hour to do as they please. Jane uses her time to practice the flute, while Bill cleans out his aquarium and feeds his tropical fish.

At 7:30 Jane and Bill bring their homework to the dining table to work on it. Mr. Meyers feel that homework is an important part of every education, and wants to make sure that his children do it correctly. Both children must show their homework to their father to be checked before they are excused to watch TV, which they usually do until bedtime. Fortunately the Meyers children do well in school, and Mr. Meyers is convinced that his system is largely responsible for his children's success in school.

When both children have finished their homework, mother and father join them in front of the TV, since they like to know what the children are watching. There are some programs which the children are not allowed to watch because they are too violent. Father has made some popcorn and lemonade for everyone, and brings it into the living room so the family can enjoy the snack while watching TV.

At 10:00 the children must go to bed. However, since Jane is a little older and is always ready for school on time, she is allowed to read in her bed for a half-hour or so in her bed before turning out her light. After the children go to bed the Meyers parents either read or watch TV until about 11:00 when they, too, go to bed.

The Nestor Family

When school ends, Linda Nestor calls her mother at work to tell her that she got a part in the school play and will need to stay after school tonight until 6:00. Mother offers to pick Linda up on the way home from work. Linda's sister Jennifer is not coming home for dinner tonight, since her best friend, Leslie, has her birthday today and Leslie's parents have invited Jennifer to go out to eat with them.

At 6:00 father arrives home and wonders where his family is. He looks at the calendar and sees that Jennifer will not be home, but nothing else is planned, so he assumes that his wife and Linda will be home for dinner. He looks into the refrigerator, grabs himself a beer, and decides to make a salad for dinner. At 6:30 Linda and her mother come home. Linda is full of news about the play. Mother asks Linda to set the table and mother makes some hamburgers to go along with the salad. Linda continues to talk while she sets the table, and father finds three wine glasses and some wine. "Getting a part in the school play calls for a celebration," he says. Linda is delighted, since it is not often that she is allowed a glass of wine.

After dinner mother warns Linda that she should start her homework. As Linda leaves the table, however, Jennifer and Leslie run into the kitchen. Mother, father, and Linda wish Leslie a happy birthday, and the two girls tell about the birthday cake they had at the restaurant. "Hello! Anybody home?" call Leslie's parents from the door. "In the kitchen!" yells Mr. Nestor, and Leslie's parents come in.

Father offers Leslie's parents some coffee, while Jennifer takes Leslie up to her bedroom. Father explains that Linda also had a celebration tonight, and calls on Linda to tell about the play. Linda is surprised to learn that Leslie's mother is in an amateur theatre group, and they chat animatedly about their upcoming productions while father makes the coffee and mother hastily carries the dishes to the sink. Linda stays in the kitchen talking with the adults for nearly an hour.

After Leslie and her parents leave, mother reminds Linda that it is her night to do the dishes. Linda complains because she has so much homework tonight that she cannot wash dishes and still get all of it done. Mother thinks that Linda should have washed dishes or done homework instead of chatting with the adults, but the Nestor parents agree that homework comes first. The parents agree to do the dishes as long as Linda promises to do them tomorrow. Linda rushes to do her homework.

While the parents are washing the dishes, Jennifer comes down to the kitchen to ask for help with her math homework. Mother and Jennifer sit down at the table to work on the problems together while father finishes up the dishes.

Later that night, as the parents prepare for bed, mother checks in on Linda, who is still working on her homework. "How much longer are you going to be up?" asks mother. Linda guesses she will be up another hour. Mother spends a few more minutes with Linda, expressing worry that Linda will wear herself out with the play on top of so much homework. Linda kisses her mother and promises to take care of herself. Mother says goodnight, and leaves Linda to her studies.

The Reiss Family

Kevin Reiss comes home from school with his friend, Brian. The boys are excited because Kevin was elected to the student council this afternoon at school. They go straight to the kitchen and pour themselves some Coke. Kevin and Brian search through the refrigerator and cabinets looking for something to eat. They decide to make grilled cheese sandwiches and use the brownie mix to make some brownies. When the sandwiches are made the boys take them out to the living room to watch TV.

Kevin's brother, David, arrives home a bit later. He stopped at the store after school and bought a record album, so he rushes up to his room to play the new album and turns the volume up for his favorite song. Kevin yells at David because he can't hear the TV; David yells back that he has to play it loud in order to hear his song over the TV. Brian suggests that they go to his house to watch television instead, so Kevin and Brian leave.

When mother arrives home she smells something burning and pulls the partially burnt brownies from the oven. David comes downstairs and talks with mother about a problem he's having in one of his classes. Afterwards, David stares at the burnt brownies and jokes that they should go buy some ice cream to put on top of the brownies. Mother thinks that ice cream sounds good by itself, and David and mother go to the store for ice cream.

Mr. Reiss sees a "Kentucky Fried Chicken" on his way home from work, stops in and buys a bucket of fried chicken for dinner. When he arrives home he fixes a plate of chicken for himself and leaves the rest of the chicken on the table for the family. He eats his dinner quickly, then hurries outside to work in the garden before dark.

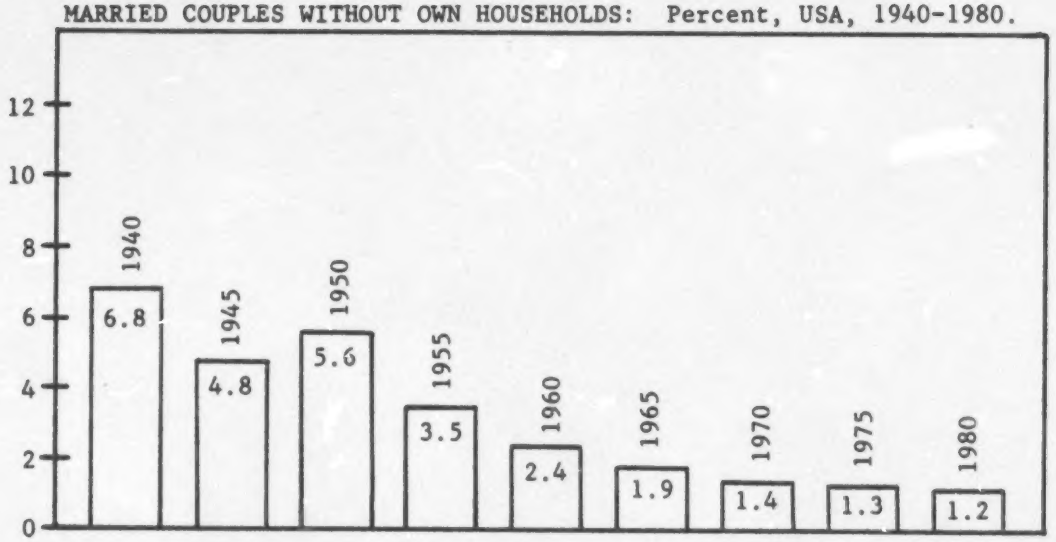
Meanwhile, mother and David return with the ice cream. David sees the chicken, grabs a couple of pieces and takes them up to his bedroom. David eats his dinner while he does his homework. His new album plays in the background.

Mother fixes herself a bowl of ice cream and tries one of the burnt brownies. She looks out the window and sees her husband with Kevin, who has just come back from Brian's. Outside, Kevin is telling father about his election to the student council. Father listens while he and Kevin finish up the garden work, and the two of them walk to the the house together to tell mother Kevin's news.

Later that evening, some of David's friends come over to hear his new album. Kevin settles down on the sofa to do his homework, and Mr. and Mrs. Reiss decide to go out for a quick drink at their club.

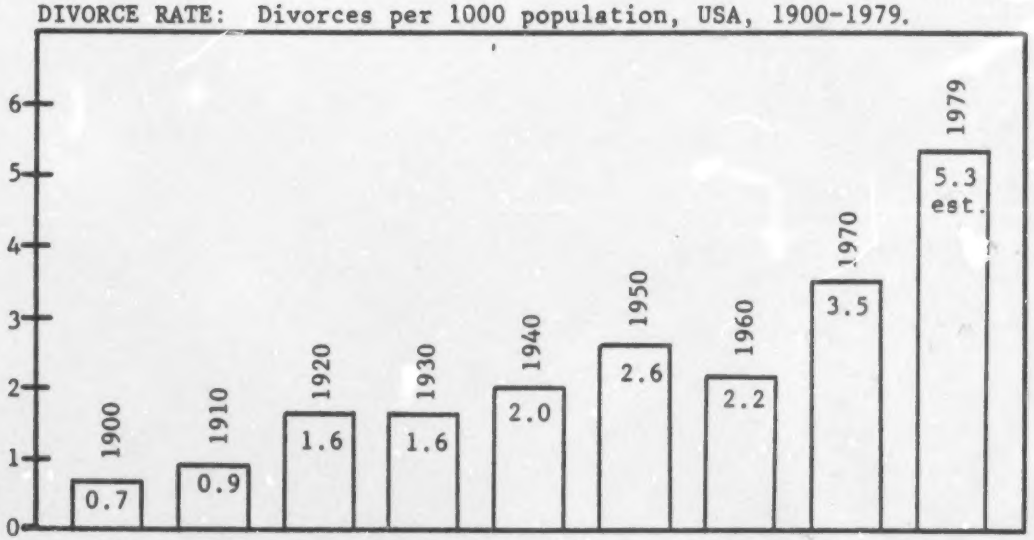
When the Reiss parents return, they find Kevin asleep on the sofa -- where he will spend the night. One of David's friends needs a ride home, and father offers to drive him. Mother goes into the kitchen and decides to have some of the chicken. She makes a salad to go with it and sits down to eat at the kitchen table. In a few minutes father and David return from driving David's friend home. David goes to bed, but father joins his wife in the kitchen and has a bowl of ice cream. Afterwards he and his wife wash the dishes together, and go to bed.

MARRIED COUPLES WITHOUT OWN HOUSEHOLDS: Percent, USA, 1940-1980.



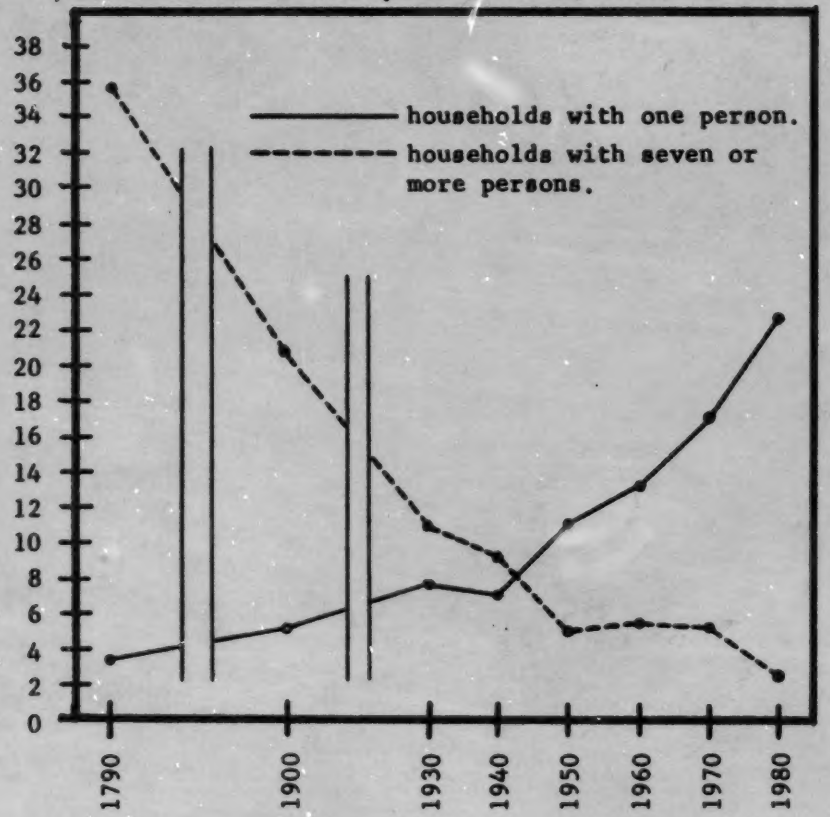
The general trend in the U.S. has been for married couples (whether very young or very old) to maintain their own private households unless it is absolutely impossible for them to do so. The percentage of those without their own household has been extraordinarily low in recent years. (Source: U.S. Census data)

DIVORCE RATE: Divorces per 1000 population, USA, 1900-1979.



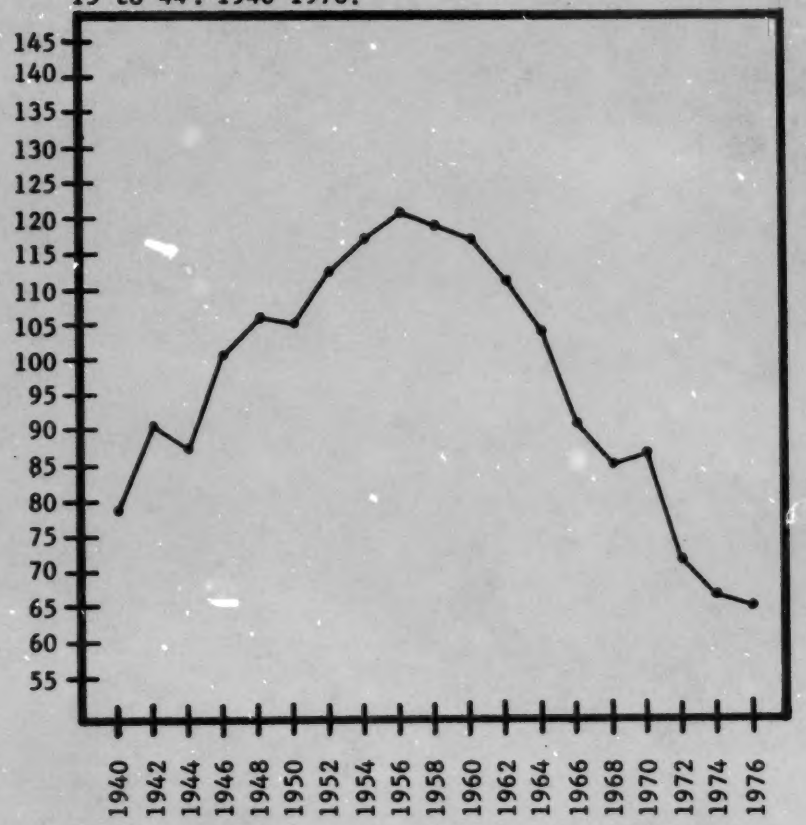
The divorce rate increased slowly between 1900 and 1960, but since 1960 it has shown much more rapid gains. (Source: *The World Almanac and Book of Facts 1981*)

HOUSEHOLD SIZE: Percent of all households containing either one or seven+ persons: 1790, 1900, 1930-1980.



During the past fifty years, an historic change has taken place in the size of U.S. households. The percentage of households with only one person has increased sharply, while the percentage of those with seven or more persons has fallen to almost zero.
(Source: U.S. Census data)

FERTILITY RATE: Live births per 1000 women aged 15 to 44: 1940-1976.



The "baby boom" in the United States lasted from the end of World War Two until the early 1960s. The high point was reached in 1957, when there were 122.7 live births per 1000 women of childbearing age. Recently, the birth rate has fallen to a very low level.
(Source: U.S. Census data)

The American Dream

This young couple is looking joyfully and proudly at the home they have just purchased. It is a large house with a two-car garage, set well back from the street in a beautiful lawn with many handsome old trees, located in a middle-class suburban neighborhood with excellent schools and a big shopping center. They have been able to achieve the American dream!

In the early 1980s, a scene such as this is only a dream for almost all young and middle-aged couples in the United States. A spacious house such as this costs so much money that almost no one can afford it, not even if their parents are willing to help financially. The reality today is that most couples buying a home for the first time have to settle either for a small and modest house in a deteriorating neighborhood, or for a tiny condominium or cooperative apartment. And a great many young couples simply cannot afford to purchase any real estate, and continue to live year after year in rented houses or apartments.

YOU STILL LIVE AT HOME?
MY PARENTS AND I GET ALONG VERY WELL. WHAT'S WRONG WITH THAT?
NOTHING! DID I SAY ANYTHING WAS WRONG? C'MON, YOU HAVE TO BE KIDDING.
HAVEN'T YOU EVER HEARD OF GOOD FAMILY RELATIONS? I'M NOT SUCH A FREAK YOU KNOW! WHY DOES EVERYONE TRY TO MAKE ME FEEL WRONG?
YOU REALLY STILL LIVE AT HOME? YOU'RE BEING SERIOUS NOW.
WE DO HAVE DIFFERENCES. WHAT FAMILY DOESN'T? BUT I'M NOT LIKE MY SISTER. I CHOOSE NOT TO RUN AWAY.
YOU KNOW, YOU'VE ALMOST GOT ME BELIEVING YOU. YOU DO LIVE AT HOME!
WHY SHOULD TWENTY-NINE BE AN ARBITRARY AGE TO MOVE OUT? WITHOUT ME WHO WOULD THEY HAVE LEFT?
HEH, YOU CAN TELL ME. YOU'RE KIDDING- HUH? YOU'RE KIDDING-
YOU DON'T KNOW WHAT REAL HEARTBREAK IS. THEY KNOW THE KIND OF LIFE JANET LEADS. IF I MOVED IN WITH HER THEY'D - THEY'D -
YOU MUST BE KIDDING!
WILD PARTIES - OUT TILL ALL HOURS OF THE NIGHT. BOY-FRIENDS ALL OVER THE PLACE. I'M THE RESPONSIBLE ONE, YOU KNOW. WILD PARTIES -
NOBODY STILL LIVES AT HOME.
IF I DID MOVE IN WITH JANET I BET I COULD MAKE HER SETTLE DOWN! THAT CERTAINLY OUGHT TO PLEASE MY PARENTS!
I KNEW IT! YOU DON'T STILL LIVE AT HOME!
I'LL TELL THEM DWIGHT! THEY'LL BE DELIGHTED!

Source: Jules Feiffer. *The Unexpurgated Memoirs of Bernard Mergendeiler.* Random House (New York, NY), 1959.